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ABSTRACT

This journal for second language teachers contains seven articles. "Video in Language Teaching," by Michael Laflin, is a defense for the use of video equipment in the language classroom. In "Constructing an Index," Diane Adams-Smith and Desmond MacCullagh describe a course in medical record administration in which the students compiled a medical text-book index, thus providing them with a trial-run at setting up and maintaining a records system. Gayle Secretan, in "Role Play and Simulation Techniques for Advanced Level ESP (Science) Students," discusses the use of these techniques in teaching discourse skills. An article by Adams-Smith deals with the "1980 TESOL Convention." "The English Language Programme for Graduate Students in the University of Kuwait," by Michael Clarke and Susan Leather, outlines the course design and requirements for the ESL program. "Elaboration d'un Materiel Didactique pour un Second Semestre Debutants" (Material Preparation for Beginners, Second Semester), by J. Brunn and others, describes the choosing of objectives and the presentation of material in the French language course at Kuwait. "A Contrastive Analysis of the Noun Phrase in English and Kuwaiti Arabic" by M. Aziz F. Yassin compares the NP structure in both languages. (PJM)

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EDITORIAL

This edition of Al-Manakh includes the first published contribution from outside Kuwait. Also included is an article on the first semester's work in the Graduate School, as well as a further contribution from the French Unit, setting out the work undertaken there since the publication of their first article in Volume 3, No. 2.

***** ***** *****

Observations by two recent visitors to the Language Centre bring the editorial once again to the theme of research. There exists in the Language Centre a wide range of professional interests and experience which could fruitfully be guided in research in a systematic manner. Obviously research is undertaken in the preparation of some courses, but is still very much on an ad hoc basis and dependant on the interest of the Language Centre member involved. In our situation areas of research are obvious, human and material resources are not lacking, and a journal for the publication of results already exists.

***** ***** *****

As the various English Language Units become more involved in designing and implementing study skills courses and courses for academic purposes, so the feeling grows that, although we may be the largest such Centre in the region, other Institutions probably face the same problems in training undergraduates and graduates for study in English either in their home Universities or abroad. With this in mind, Al-Manakh invites the submission of articles from colleagues in Institutions in the Gulf and the Middle East on theoretical and practical aspects of their on-going EAP and study skills programmes. It is envisaged that aricles would deal with topics including needs analyses, syllabus design, materials preparation, classroom implementation and testing. Some indication of the size of the institution, the language department's brief and student goals would be useful. Articles, addressed to the Editor, Al-Manakh, should reach us by December 31, 1980 and will be considered for publication in Volume 5, No. 2, or in a "Special Edition" if the response is great enough.

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Over 500 copies of the last edition of Al-Manakh were distributed, with about 230 being sent abroad. The interest shown in our journal is gratifying, and hopefully a stimulus for future contributors. Finally, the Editor wishes to express his thanks and appreciation to those members of the current Editorial Committee who are leaving the Language Centre, for their invaluable help in the preparation of both editions of Volume 4.

Edward Richards,
Editor.

VIDEO IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

MICHAEL LAFLIN
A.V. SUPERVISOR

The Chairman of a British Local Education Authority recently said "we want teachers teaching."[1] The context of this remark was a discussion of audio-visual materials. Its implication was "- and not mucking about with sound, vision and other diversions." This observation was made by Ian Elliot of the late Central Council of Advisers in Audio-Visual Education.

VIDEO: ITS PROPERTIES

The AV Centre has been "mucking about" with video this semester. Tapes of lectures have been made for Commerce and Science E.L.U.'S. Some have been "historical records" of lectures which can be used in future in lieu of asking the speakers to return. Others are illustrations of language used for a particular study skills purpose, and have accompanying audio tapes for intensive study.

The interest in video tape for language teaching lies in three properties peculiar to the medium (and film):

i. sound
ii. picture
iii. movement/dynamism

Since it combines these features in synchronisation, it has an advantage over most other media and over the teacher in transmitting information. Generally speaking, it can do so more quickly and often more vividly. If the teacher has the advantage of personal contact, the video screen has the advantage of eye-to-eye contact with the whole group. When everyone in the room has the feeling that the speaker on the screen is looking at him, the impact is compelling.

Illustrations of authentic language on video have an edge on most other media since the relationship between linguistic and paralinguistic behaviour can be shown. Showing this relationship relies on the dynamic quality of video. If a process can be divided into discrete elements, then a static visual medium such as print or transparencies can be used. Some of the processes videotaped for Science could have been rendered in static form with an audio commentary. But what is being taught is not the process itself but how to listen to and understand a lecturer explaining the process. For this purpose, a dynamic medium is required since the paralinguistic features of a lecture are continuous and related to the speech and each other.

APPLICATIONS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

What applications are there in language teaching?

My own viewing of materials designed to illustrate grammatical structures leads me to the conclusion that it is difficult to avoid surrealism, whether intentionally or otherwise. "People You Meet"[2] is intentionally whimsical, for example. I find it engaging and instructive, but it often comes under fire for not being "serious" enough for use in the Language Centre. At the other end of the spectrum, a video equivalent of "Modern American English"[3] would do credit to the Theatre of the Absurd. The problem lies in repetition of a structure. Video, in appearance, is realistic. It is one of its strengths. Repetition of structures rarely happens in real life to the extent the exercise demands, and it therefore appears surrealistic. By using the same actors in different situations, "People You Meet" establishes a theatrical, almost Brechtian convention, and (in my opinion) creates its own, unrealistic, logic. The same visual "tricks" are used in "En Francais"[4] for a different purpose, where actors operate against white backgrounds in many cases, almost in limbo. But the question is raised, whether this use of video for the teaching of discrete linguistic structures or functions is the best application of the medium in language teaching.

The most common use of the medium is for the purposes of the introduction of a topic or a sample of real language use, where the student engages in extended listening/viewing. Comprehension or note-taking exercises are followed by intensive listening to an audio version of the video tape. It is worth mentioning here that associated audio or print materials are almost always desirable in exploiting video tapes, and that using video materials requires considerable preparation time by the teacher.

At a British Council conference in London in 1979, the following scheme was cited as a successful method of exploiting video tapes.

a. introduction
b. play the tape. The group notes key words or phrases, and one of the group writes them on the blackboard.
c. reconstruct the "storyline" from the key words and phrases
d. play the tape a second time, and ask general comprehension questions
e. play the tape a third time, preceded by "discrete" comprehension questions or similar, to be filled in during or after the play.

Further plays and other activities can follow if necessary.

Several important points were made with regard to the above. It was suggested that two to five minutes was the most suitable length of segment for study of this kind, which is fairly intensive. It was noted that video is tiring to watch and that two hours (which seems to me excessive) was the maximum toleration time for viewing and exploitation in a single session.

The point was made that the medium is flexible ("unpaced" was the word used) and that steps can be omitted. The initiative is left to the learners. It was also suggested that silent sequences be used for narrative or process illustration. These could form a basis for oral or written work, requiring the students to provide a commentary, summarise, predict language or interpret the speakers' attitudes from visual clues.

VIDEO PRODUCTION

Some technical features of production are worth mentioning briefly. Much has been written on whether one shoots teaching material in the classroom or in a studio, with the weight of experience favouring the classroom. I tried both methods in Kenya, and although a studio production looked cleaner, teachers would only accept 16mm film footage shot in a rural classroom, despite the poor sound quality and lighting. Studio productions were unreal.

Here we cannot use film, and the technical problems of lighting a classroom are immense, even with the proper equipment. The French Language Unit wants to try it, and it will be interesting to see their reaction to the result. Both settings have their applications; from my point of view, the studio is easier.

Sound quality is crucial in language teaching materials. For two or three speakers, neck microphones provide excellent quality; for a static situation, microphones on stands will suffice. Covering a large area - if, for example, one wished to capture student questions or responses - is much more difficult.

It is possible to edit videotapes, and a variety of visual sources can be added. Titles, film inserts, slides, photographs, diagrams and graphs: all can be assembled in a video recording.

Most of the material we record at the moment is unscripted. It has to be, since its value lies in its being natural. This makes for problems since one never knows what is to happen next, and often the speaker seems to proceed on the principle of "Fooled you!", as he sells another dummy. How far one would edit out the fast camera pans, focussing shots and all features which arise from the difficulties of continuous shooting, and look for a more polished, professional result (and possibly less "real" as a consequence) depends on the application for which the sequence is intended. It is important to remember that the camera always lies. The camera filters, selects, excludes and emphasises in a way that restructures reality. It even changes what it reveals. If it points down at a speaker, he will seem defenceless, humble, unconvincing; if it points up, he will seem superior and remote. If he looks directly at the lens, he will seem more confident than if he turns away. If he were lit from a certain angle, he would have the credibility of the last days of Richard Nixon, shadowy - jowled and baggy-eyed.

The study of semiology is prescribed reading for would-be TV producers. The important point is that unless they have received a course in TV produc-

tion techniques, the audience won't KNOW: it all looks so realistic. On a broader level, the sophisticates who have read their Vance Packard still get taken in by clever camerawork and editing.

CONCLUSION

But I am using a negative angle to illustrate positive elements that teachers can use. Clever editing can be used for delusion; it can also be used to cut out tedious bits of lectures, to focus on important ideas. Good lighting can bring some magic to a dull speaker in a drab classroom. Visuals of all kinds can brighten and illumine an explanation. And they need to. Expectations of the television screen are high, and competition from "The Rockford Files" is strong.

REFERENCES

1. Elliot, Ian. Audio-Visual Feature in "The Times Educational Supplement" 14th March, 1980.

2. "People You Meet" BBC and Bayerischer Rundfunk. 26 fifteen-minute films. A language point is demonstrated in each film, and there is no ostensive teaching apart from a short section in which language examples are stressed.

3. "Modern American English." Regents Publishing Co. Inc. 1979. A traditional structuralist course.

4. "En Francais." Ministere des Affaires Etrangeres/RTF.

CONSTRUCTING AN INDEX

DIANA E ADAMS-SMITH AND
DESMOND MACCULLAGH, MSSD

English 252 in the Faculty of Medicine is a three-hour credit course specially designed for majors in Medical Record Administration. Since this is a new university programme, many of the long-term language needs of the student are still unclear, but the summary in the curriculum guide includes "additional experience in comprehension, analysis and abstracting or written material ... and medical terminology."

Among the elements in this course along with speed reading, are

a. note taking
b. form filling
c. hospital visits
d. oral reports

and the compilation of an index for one of the textbooks used in the previous semester, The Language of Hospital Services in English (1976). There were a number of reasons for choosing this particular exercise.

1. It would require the students to scan and search through medical material already familiar to them for key terms and technical expressions, thus providing an introductory activity for later abstracting practice.

2. Constructing an index, i.e. putting unorganised data into a systematic and easily retrievable form, might help the students to appreciate indexes in textbooks and sc use them more effectively, and should also provide a trial run at a very basic level for setting up and maintaining records systems later.

3. It was an activity that offered a balance between preparation done at home and class time spent in discussion focused on a real goal rather than a simulated one.

4. The index would be useful to the junior class who would be using the book the following year. This gave a real purpose to the exercise and motivation to the students.

5. All in all, it was a task with a clearly defined beginning, an end, and a purpose. And like John Swales (1976) we had never done it before.

There were two students in the class and ten units in the book. The first units were examined in class while later ones were assigned to either one of the students to read through at home and select important words and phrases according to categories previously agreed upon. These catagories included:

a. diseases
b. medical and non-medical specialities
c. instruments and equipment
d. methods, types of treatment, operations
e. types of hospital
f. drugs
g. organs or parts of the body
h. titles
i. symptoms
j. names of hospitals and people.

Students checked through captions under diagrams and illustrations as well as the reading passages and underlined selected words. The next step was to enter each word on a separate index card, making a note of each page where it occurred. Discussion in class ironed out difficulties as they arose, e.g. what to do about cross referencing and head words. When the whole book had been completed, the index cards were arranged in alphabetical order, checked, and typed up. The master is now in the file, ready to be duplicated for the junior class next semester, and the compilers have a sense of a useful job well done.

The exercise took about five hours of class time and at least as much in preparation. A larger group could have divided up the book into smaller sections and completed the task more quickly, as Swales describes in his account of indexing English in Basic Medical Science. However, we were in no hurry, having decided to allow the task as long as it needed, and the time spent on discussion was valuable. The students realised that they had to pay close attention to spelling and to alphabetisation. The teacher found very few mistakes when checking through the cards before they were sent for typing.

Although we are not yet in a position to say how useful this experience will prove to be for the students, they certainly derived some personal satisfaction from it. They revised several hundred words of medical terminology, had practice in scanning, spelling and alphabetising. We did not use the exercise, as Swales did, as a final activity in finishing with a textbook, but it would certainly be an effective method of review.

Here is a sample of the final result:

Electrician	see Chief Engineer 21
Electrocardiogram	see electrocardiography 58, 61
Electrocardiography ECG	def. 58, 61 illus 59
Electroencephalogram EEG	see electroencephalograph 58, 64 illus 65
Electroencephalograh	def. 58, 64 illus 65
Emergency unit	79, 82, 83

Endocrinologist	def. 58, 61
Endocrinology	see Endocrinologist 58, 61
Engineer	Chief Engineer def. 21, 23
Epidemiologist	see Epidemiology 60
Epidemiology	def. 60, 66
Epilepsy	64
Executive	Executive Housekeeper def. 21, 23
Extended	Extended Care Facilities, 79, see Out Patient 80

Bloom, Gretchen. The Language of Hospital Services in English. New York: Regents. 1976.

Swales, John. "Compiling an Index." ESPMENA Bulletin, 5, Autumn 1976, 9-10.

ROLE PLAY AND SIMULATION TECHNIQUES FOR ADVANCED LEVEL ESP (SCIENCE) STUDENTS

GAYLE SECRETAN
ELU - SCIENCE

"We need to learn how to talk in English to English speaking people," said the students in a top level ESP Science course. They seemed somewhat disenchanted with the heavy concentration on reading skills and frustrated by being told that they needed to master the skills of skimming and scanning, of intensive and extensive reading (or, as they are termed in the massive S.R.A. reading kit, 'rate building' and 'power building.') They questioned time spent on reading skills in class if the information extracted was to be put to no useful purpose. Unrelated, irrelevant reading passages to be skimmed one after another form a rather indigestible diet in a reading programme if the students cannot see any end purpose.

The aims the teacher has in mind include:

1. improving the students' reading speed and accuracy
2. teaching the skill of isolating the main idea of a passage
3. enabling the student to test his memory of key facts contained within short passages, and so forth.

But surely the student cannot be expected to spend a whole semester improving his/her reading without being a communicative end in view?

Reading is part of a communicative act in that the articles being read have been written by one person with the intention that they should be read by another. The authors intended them to be read and had something to communicate to their readers but often these pieces are simply treated as text, i.e. sections of printed language made up of certain linguistic structures and items of vocabulary provided as bases for exercises. The communicative function of the sample as discourse may be passed over. In this sense the students are dealing with text not discourse but what they plead for is help in converting this text (written to be read silently) into the reciprocal activities of talking, arguing, discussing or explaining (communicative discourse spoken out loud and responded to by someone else). They say they can practise reading in their own time but they do not know how to express what they read in conversation with fellow students, English speaking lecturers and colleagues. And when student needs are the focus of communicative syllabus design, why ignore a clearly expressed cry for help such as that?

This is where the use of role-play and simulation games/exercises can play a part. These can offer invaluable practice in communicative skills for students of any subject from business management, through military strategy to

law and there is no reason why they cannot be used effectively in an ESP (Science or other specialisation) context to offer motivation, variety, interest, personal involvement and, most important of all, the opportunity for reciprocal expression which is one form of communication.

First of all it is necessary to distinguish between simulation and role play. The former requires the participants to simply be themselves in any discussion or debate. They are only required to express their own point of view. In role play, on the other hand, the participants adopt a new role and any arguments or opinions expressed must reflect, as closely as possible, the character or ideas of this new personality. Both are valuable.

SIMULATION

In a simulation exercise some students have strong opinions of their own which they readily produce when given the opportunity. Others enjoy extracting points from a given passage to augment their own opinions on a topic. Ev Even those who have no opinion can be helped to form one when given a number of facts in a reading passage and then prompted by questions designed to pinpoint the counteracting arguments concerned, perhaps polarise them so that the student has a clearer choice to ease the opinion forming process.

The problem set should be interesting. This means taking into consideration the students' age, level of maturity, cultural background and occupational interests as well as their linguistic ability when selecting texts. Students can be given difficult reading passages from which to extract their information and, when they know they are going to have to compete in oral discussion or argument with their fellows on this topic, then they naturally skim, pick out the main ideas and remember salient points, because they have a reason for doing so.

An example of a simulation exercise which has proved successful with advanced ESP Business Studies students, and could be of interest to Science students, was based on two leaflets issued by the Shell Oil Company at the time of the oil embargo on Rhodesia. The first was issued by the Chairman of the Board of Directors and denied any knowledge of sanctions breaking, while the other, signed by prominent representatives of four major religious bodies in U.K., (who also happened to be shareholders) provided evidence which seemed to prove that the company had contravened the government's 'oil siege' policy. The students were divided into two groups and asked, on the basis of the information in one of the leaflets, to argue either the moral/ethical point of view expressed by the religious leaders or the profit maximising point of view of the multi-national corporation. After heated discussion a vote was taken on a given resolution. Although the text was of greater complexity than any previously encountered in text books and included a lot of difficult vocabulary, with some assistance from the teacher in grasping the basic arguments, opinions were volubly expressed, backed by information selected from the text.

ROLE PLAY

Role play offers the shyer, less articulate student a cloak to protect his/her ego. Pedagogically it can perform the same function as the use of puppets with young children. As normally quiet children can become aggressive and noisy when speaking on behalf of a Punch or Judy, so normally reticent older students can blossom forth when taking the role of someone else.

The problem in ESP Science is to create suitably realistic roles with which the students will be willing to become involved. These can be suggested by a science-based article from a newspaper, for example:

i) a newspaper reporter interviewing a health officer on his work on the eradication of smallpox (imagining the questions and answers which led up to the writing of the given article.)

ii) an expression of different points of view on a controversial topic, such as the exporting by the U.S.A. of materials, drugs or chemicals which have been ruled unsafe for sale in that country.

These are simple outlines of just three possibilities. Others will spring to mind when appropriate articles are found, i.e. articles meeting the aforementioned criteria of content relevance (to the students' age, maturity background and occupational interests).

In a university context, the students could be asked to take the roles of lecturer and stupid-student! Stupid-student asks the lecturer to explain a passage in terms he/she can understand. Or the students may be asked to become temporary experts and play the role of a visiting authority who has come to lecture to a group of students. The student listeners can be given personality roles to perform, such as 'the welcomer of the visitor,' 'the critic,' 'the laugh-raiser,' 'the one who loves the sound of his/her own voice' or 'the intense genius,' etc. All can be provided with the same factual passage to prepare their roles. The 'lecturer' may be asked to feign a bad cough, a stammer or a nervous twitch to add authencity! He/She would be encouraged to take notes from the passage to form the basis of the lecture rather than simply reading the text aloud.

Strategically an important feature of these activities is that the teacher keeps a low profile. Interaction takes place primarily between student and student. Student/Teacher interaction is kept to a minimum. Student/Text interaction forms the essential groundwork and it is given meaning by the knowledge that it will lead on to one of the most natural and enjoyable forms of communication, person to person verbal interaction.

1980 TESOL CONVENTION

DIANA E ADAMS-SMITH
MSSD, FACULTY OF MEDICINE

The 14th Annual TESOL Convention was held from 4th to 9th march, 1980 in San Francisco, California. Present at this mammoth gathering were more than 4000 delegates. Over 90% of them came from the United States, with the West Coast particularly strongly represented, together with contingents from the People's Republic of China, Algeria, Portugal and South America.

The first two days were given over to workshops and mini-courses, varying in length from three to twelve hours. These included offerings by Louis Trimble and Mary Todd Trimble (Individualizing for the ESP Class), Candline and Breen (Communicative Language Learning and Teaching Methodology), Olsen, Huckin and Tomlin (A Functional Approach to the Analysis of Scientific English), Scholtz and Scholtz (Writing Language Material for EST), Zuck and Oster (Explorations in Written Discourse), Fallon and Maple (A Practicum for American Teachers of Arab ESL Students), Gaies and Allwright (Colloquium on Classroom Centred Research) and Adams-Smith (Levels of Questioning: Teaching Creative Thinking through ESP). The remaining days were devoted to a number of plenary sessions and the presentation of papers, along with a range of evening activities in which most delegates from the Middle East, suffering from the eleven-hour time difference between San Francisco and Kuwait, found participation difficult. The Arab world was represented by Rebecca Fakhry from Ain Sham University, Cairo, "The Curriculum Review Project;" Edith Hanania and Nola Bach from A.U.B., "The Teaching of Linking Words to Advanced ESL Students;" David Van Hammen and Adele Hansen from the Institut National d'Electricité et d'Electronique, Boumerdes, Algeria, "Developing Integrated ESP/EST Lessons Around Authentic Video-Taped Language;" and Kuwait University, with Diana Adams-Smith reporting on "Ascertaining the EL Needs of Paramedical Hospital staff."

One of TESOL's problems lies in its size. 320 papers and demonstrations, 70 workshops, minicourses and colloquia, 30 meeting rooms in two separate hotels, almost 500 delegates of widely differing backgrounds and interests. The congestion in the halls was reminiscent of the Jahra Circle at 11.15 on a Thursday morning, and overcrowding in the lecture rooms created considerable difficulties for some of the presenters. Perhaps one answer would be to stage a number of separate meetings, one for ESL and bilingual education, one for applied linguistics, and so on, but as professional interests so often overlap this might lead to further problems.

Patricia Hines in reviewing the TESOL Convention held in Boston in 1979 comments on the neglect of ESP. "In terms of acceptance of ESP as a viable curriculum, teachers within the US seem to fall behind their international col-

leagues, for discussion still centres around the worth of ESP as opposed to a more general curriculum of language studies, rather than the best implementation of an ESP curriculum" (ESPMENA 12, p. 12). In San Francisco a year later, ESP seems to have made noticeable progress. Apart from the workshops and papers already mentioned, and a new and lively interest evidenced in vocational and occupational ESL, Henry Widdowson addressed a plenary session with a paper entitled "TESOL and ESP: The Curse of Caliban." This was well attended, enthusiastically received, and should go a long way towards setting EST in an acceptable and respectable context. Other useful offerings were Alan Maley's "Limits to Authenticity", Karl Drobnic's "Impact Analysis System for the ESL/ESP Administration" and Selinker and Bley-Vroman with "EST: A Suggested Pragmatic Paradigm."

One final point brings us closer to home. A number of people looked at my conference badge and said warmly, "Ah, Kuwait. That's where Al-Manakh comes from." Perhaps the day is approaching when the Language Centre will actually replace the present image of Kuwait as the place where the oil comes from.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROGRAMME FOR GRADUATE STUDENTS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF KUWAIT

MICHAEL CLARKE
SUSAN LEATHER } ELU-SCIENCE

1. BACKGROUND

In the Fall Semester 1979, the University of Kuwait College of Graduate Studies accepted its first students for two-year courses leading to the degree of M.Sc. in the departments of Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry in the Faculty of Science.

All students had previously been required to submit TOEFL scores, the generally low level of which had prompted the following English Language requirements: students attaining 475 and above were exempt from any further English courses; those scoring between 450 and 474 were required to take a one-semester Remedial English course of five hours a week; and those in the range 400-447 were required to take a one-semester Intensive course of ten hours a week. These requirements resulted in 3 students being placed in the Remedial course, and 7 in the Intensive. For students in this latter course, final acceptance into the graduate programme was conditional upon its successful competion within the first semester. The task of developing and teaching the two courses was assigned to the English Language Unit, Science.

2. COURSE DESIGN

The basic course design that we decided upon was in essence a study-skills course, centring upon the activities which students are required to undertake as graduate students. An ad hoc assessment of these defined them as

attending lectures
attending seminars
reading books and articles
writing and presenting papers and a dissertation
carrying out other research activities

A more detailed assessment of these activities suggested features such as listening to lectures, notetaking, reconstituting notes, discussion in seminars, giving short lectures, reading comprehension, summarising texts, library research, and the production of extended written work such as term papers and a dissertation. The course was therefore intended to teach the language skills necessary to perform these activities.

This approach was not arbitrarily decided upon, even though little time was available for full course design procedures, and the course itself was therefore necessarily of a stop-gap nature; it was based on a pragmatic consideration of certain factors and constraints.

tive, such a course would require major research into large samples of texts drawn from the individual disciplines. Such research has not yet to our knowledge been undertaken on a large enough scale for the resultant insights to be a sufficient basis for a course; nor have the small scale studies so far attempted (e.g. Swales 1974; Ewer and Lattore 1969) given strong evidence that sufficient linguistic features germane to a given academic discipline can usefully be isolated unless it is the lexis of that discipline, which in our view is the rightful province of the subject specialists in the Science Faculty, and which is handled by them in the normal course of teaching. This view is strongly supported by Hutchinson and Waters (1979). In our view, and that of the Graduate College, the type of language the students required was that of "formal, and informal general academic English."

We, felt therefore that neither the subject matter nor the language taught should be over-specific in content, but should exhibit at least the following two features:

i. that the subject matter be of general scientific interest in itself, and hopefully, parallel some of their main interest/subject areas and,

ii. that the discourse structure and organisation realistically parallel the types of language they have to deal with in their studies, and therefore be authentic and/or provide a basis for practising appropriate language skills. We found the taxonomy of language skills in Munby (1978) extremely helpful in selecting skills appropriate to the needs of our students.

The course was divided into two components entitled "Advanced Listening Comprehension," and "Advanced Reading/Writing."

3. ADVANCED LISTENING COMPREHENSION COMPONENT

There were two main 'strands' to the 'listening' component of the course, based on:

A. "Listening to Lectures", by Jo McDonough -
   Three titles -
   a. Mechanics
   b. Computers
   c. Biology

B. Filmed Lectures:
   a. The Static and Dynamic Worlds
   b. Molecules in Motion
   c. Entropy
      (All from the BBC series "Laws of Disorder")
   d. The Bottom of the Oil Barrel (BBC Films: "Horizon" series)

The first constraint was the teaching time available (approximately 60 and 120 hours), related to the ability levels of the students on entry. It is clear from the above that the majority of students had sub-450 TOEFL scores, the lowest of which was 403. Against this can be set two assessments: the first, referred to in Elliman (1979), that the average overseas student in the totally English environment of an American university, even with a 500 + TOEFL score, may well take between six to twelve months to perform adequately in lectures; and secondly, the findings of Bens[1], which showed that students, including many native speakers of Arabic, following a 300-hour intensive English course in an American University achieved an average TOEFL score increase of only 35 points. It seemed to us, therefore, that whilst the objectives of enabling students to communicate in situations both within and without the context of their academic studies might be a desirable ideal, a more realistic objective, and thus our first priority, should be that of developing specific skills to fulfil specific academic needs. We felt that this objective was equally valid in the case of the Remedial group, whose TOEFL scores may have been higher, but who had less time allotted to English, and a correspondingly heavier work load in their science courses.

A second factor here was the attitudes of the students themselves, which were, in general, fairly negative. There seemed to be a general feeling that their limited level of English had already enabled them to graduate with good grades and that they did not therefore really require any further English courses to study as Post-graduates. This was especially true of those specialising in Mathematics, who thought that virtually no knowledge of English was required to study the subject. It seemed to us important to raise the level of motivation beyond that provided by the fact that, for some of the students, failure entailed withdrawal from the post-graduate programme as a whole. This we attempted to do by following a course where both the language and methodology was, and could be seen to be, directly relevant to the activities required of graduate students, as opposed to an indirect approach, such as a grammatically-based review of structures and lexis, which, being so far removed from the immediate situation, would be less motivating since less immediately rewarding. This view was in fact given substantial support by later feedback from the students.

A further consideration here was the cross-disciplinary nature of the two groups of students, with Mathematics forming the largest group. For obvious reasons, this precluded the possibility of following a subject-specific register based course such as "English for Chemists." There were, in fact, good reasons in our view why such a course would not have been desirable or even feasible, even if the students had been of one discipline. To be effec-

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[1]Alice Bens, Director, A.L.I., San Francisco State University, in a speech given at N.A.F.S.A. Conference, 1975.

A third 'strand' was introduced in the form of a set of exercises to tackle the basic grammatical weakness which revealed itself as soon as students were required to produce written work.

I shall now discuss these strands in some detail.

A. "Listening to Lectures"

The materials written by McDonough based on extracts from actual lectures at Essex University proved to be a valuable part of the listening course. They are designed to help students understand the English used in lectures and talks in specialised subject areas. However, they do not deal mainly with recurrent lexical/structural features but rather with communicative features relevant to the discourse mode of lectures in certain disciplines.

An analysis of one of the titles in this series - Computing - in terms of the taxonomy of micro-skills in Munby (1978) - revealed that the following were some of the skills practised by the exercises.

1. Recognising the use of stress in connected speech for indicating information units.
2. Recognising the use of stress for contrast, through nuclear shift.
3. Recognising weak forms - reduction of unstressed vowels.
4. Recognising lexical antithesis.
5. Guessing the meaning and use of unfamiliar lexical items through contextual clues.
6. Understanding explicitly stated information (usually through the technique of T/F questions).
7. Understanding use of reference devices (anaphora).
8. Understanding relations in sentence: focus and theme ("What we're interested in is ...")
9. Recognising indicators in discourse for transition to another idea (e.g. Rhetorical question - "How should we actually regard the computer?")
10. Recognising indicators in discourse for concluding an idea (e.g. an overt summary marker).
11. Distinguishing main ideas from supporting details.
12. Lexical set (Lexical cohesion). Recognising not collocation but rather all lexical items in an extract from a given semantic area. (An example from "Mechanics" is "find words which express the fact that an object is not motionless but moving, e.g. acceleration, driving").
13. Extracting salient points to summarise the whole text.

14. Reducing the text through rejecting redundant items, especially omission of closed system items such as articles and determiners. (One technique used - questions are given in note form to be answered in note form).

15. Omission of repetition (and irrelevancy) in note taking.

16. Understanding cohesion devices (and hence the logical structure of an extract).

17. Use of abbreviations.

It is reasonable to describe "Listening to Lectures" as data-based in its approach. That is to say, from full-length, authentic university lectures, extracts are selected which exhibit textual/discoursal features such as those associated with the micro-skills listed above. Clearly the choice of text determines the linguistic features which are abstracted for study, and so effectively determines the syllabus content in this case. However, it should be clear from the above list of micro-skills that "Listening to Lectures" is not in essence subject-specific, but purpose-specific. The aim is to enable students to handle spoken academic discourse, and the three titles which we drew on have in common many of the micro-skills practised. There is little attempt to isolate subject-specific lexis and structures, an approach to E.S.P. which is even less appropriate when dealing with spoken texts than with written ones.

Certain features of "Listening to Lectures" may be worth mentioning here. Because the listening texts are authentic, they exhibit the performance phenomena one expects of unscripted speech - false starts, hesitations, digressions and irrelevancies, repetition, high redundancy, and so on. (Naturally, all of these features are present in the lectures our students attend at KU, and have to be handled by them as part of the communication process). Another feature is the sequence in which the micro-skills are dealt with. Like features (intonational, lexical, discoursal, etc.) are not grouped together for study. Rather, an extract will typically be "passed over" more than once, with students listening for a certain type of feature on the first "pass," and they will then listen to the same extract again in order to concentrate on other features. (The extracts are in sequence as they occur in the lecture, and so something of the overall coherence is retained.)

Commenting on the materials by McDonough, Murphy and Candlin (1979) acknowledge that, among commercially published materials, "Listening to Lectures" "does represent a step forward from what was previously available." (p. 65) They express reservations, however, on two important counts: the absence of exercises on the reinterpretation of notes and information transfer exercises; and the failure to appreciate and incorporate visual material which may have been used in the lectures on which "Listening to Lectures" is based.

An interesting and fundamental question for materials design arises here. Should one start with data or a model? Should one work from a whole text to its parts analytically, or should one take as a starting point a set of receptive skills, perhaps as described in terms of the ability to handle linguistic features/micro-functions as in the taxonomy of micro-skills in Munby (1978)? The alternatives for the materials writer seem to be :

i. to take a set of micro-skills which have been identified as necessary for the understanding of a particular type of spoken discourse - in this case unscripted monologue - and to search out or write samples of text which will illustrate and provide practice in handling the micro-functions concerned; or

ii. to collect samples of text which are appropriate - actual target texts, or texts which are somehow parallel to these - to analyse them for salient textual/discoursal features, and to make these texts the basis for listening practice.

With McDonough, we favour the latter course, although this is not to say that we do not recognise the need for a systematic model. We have found it very difficult to work in the sequence: 1. select micro-skills, 2. search available texts for occurrences of associated micro-functions. The order implicit in alternative (ii) above seems more workable, namely: 1. search out representative target texts; 2. identify salient textual/discoursal features. It is then possible to select micro-functions from data and match them against selected skills from whatever taxonomy one is using. If a large enough sample of truly representative data is employed, it would seem reasonable to expect that the text would yield the main linguistic features to be dealt with. This is a big proviso, and not one that is easy to satisfy in practice. Nevertheless, one answer to the data-model question which we would suggest is that one should work with both simultaneously and approach the materials contents - and - design problem from both directions, as it were.

B. The second 'strand' of the Listening/Speaking component of our courses was intended to meet such weaknesses as (1) the absence of any visual element and (2) larger scale note-taking and reconstituting exercises, which were mentioned above. That is, it seemed necessary to go beyond linguistic analysis exercises based on audio tape-recordings, and to practice skills of a more 'macro' nature in the context of longer texts incorporating some visual element. Accordingly, filmed lectures available from the A.V. Library in the Language Centre were selected and dubbed onto videotape. Films from the series, "Laws of Disorder" were used with some success. These lectures, aimed at an educated but non-specialist audience, given by Prof. George Porter, deal with matter relating to Thermodynamics, and more generally with physical chemistry. They are reasonably eclectic and wide-ranging in their subject matter, touching on such sub-topics as: probability and statistics, models of atomic and molecular

structure, the history of the development of scientific ideas, heat work and energy, and so on. The lectures, 30-minutes in length, are probably more tightly structured in overall plan than most university lectures, but they are unscripted, and involve the occasional use of simple apparatus, models, and other visual props and aids, and so were very well suited to our purpose. Also used was a BBC Horizon film ("The Bottom of the Oil Barrel"), much longer and scripted, so that the information density of the commentary was very high, the redundancy being minimal. This was high on interest value, but linguistically less appropriate than the Porter lectures.

The first stage in the use of these films was to transcribe the text from an audio-tape-recording of the sound track. This is a time-consuming job, but one which repays the effort in terms of what one can do with the film. Work based on the video taped films comprised six phases. (We are indebted to Diana Adams-Smith, MSSD, Medicine Faculty, K.U., for some of the ideas contained here.)

i. Students study - at home - a handout which includes a summary, outline, questions for discussion and selected vocabulary before they view the film.

ii. During the first viewing, students aurally scan sections of the lecture/film in order to answer and discuss pre-prepared questions.

iii. For the second viewing, each student takes notes on assigned topic or section of the lecture/film.

iv. Out of class, students study their notes and prepare to give an oral presentation, of their topic in a quasi-seminar situation. They also have to deal with questions from other students.

v. Students submit a written account of their topic based on oral presentation/discussion. This is marked individually with each student.

vi. Extracts from the film are copied on to audio cassette. Each student is given a copy of this tape for home study using specially produced work sheets. The skills practised are meant to reinforce those practised in the "Listening to Lectures" materials.

The tasks associated with these films were more 'open-ended' than the intensive linguistic analysis practised in "Listening to Lectures." The discussion, oral presentation and writing tasks created opportunities for students to use language in less controlled circumstances, and to integrate the activities of listening, note-taking, speaking and writing. Above all, work which is integrated in this way gives some real end purpose to listening, rather than simply giving practice in analytic listening tasks, which are useful as far as they go, but are too often justified as an end in themselves.

C. A third 'strand' to this component was not related to listening at all, and it must be said was barely capable of being integrated with the rest of the component. This was a set of exercises aimed at tackling the grammatical weakness which our students displayed as soon as they were required to use language productively. A cloze procedure was applied to a series of texts. From each line one word - usually a 'functor' was deleted. Students had to deduce not only which word-class and word was missing, but at which point in the line a word had been deleted. Words were deleted not on the normal fifth or seventh word principle but on the basis of importance to structure and meaning at group, clause, sentence and occasionally supra-sentential levels. These exercises were used on a regular basis throughout the semester, and their problem-solving nature engaged the interest of our students much more than one could have expected from a more traditional approach to grammatical practice. Nevertheless, integrating remedial grammar in a study skills course remains a problem, as it did for Candlin, Kirkwood and Moore (1971).

4. ADVANCED READING COMPREHENSION/WRITING COMPONENT

The objectives of this component of the course were to improve the students' linguistic abilities and inculcate strategies so that they would be able to perform satisfactorily in the areas of reading texts and writing. There were therefore two main parts: intensive reading comprehension leading to written work; and the production of a term paper.

i. Intensive Reading Comprehension

This was based throughout on a taxonomy of skills derived from Munby (1978), similar to that for the listening comprehension component, but with the obvious omission of phonological skills, and the addition of

1. skimming for the gist of the text;
2. scanning for specific information in the text;
3. understanding conceptual meaning;
4. understanding the communicative value of sentences and their relations within a text for
5. extracting and expressing the main idea of a paragraph or complete text;
6. planning and organising information.

The aporoach to teaching these skills took first an atomistic approach, followed by an integrated set of strategies for examining a text as a whole.

a. Intensive Study of Specific Skills

These skills were vocabulary, function, and understanding the main idea of a passage. The vocabulary exercises examined firstly

the system of affixation, roots, derivation and compounding; and secondly, deriving the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary from contextual clues. The function unit drew students' attention through multiple choice questions to specific aspects of the rhetorical or communicative function of sentences and their relationships, and the language skills associated with such functions. This was preparatory to practice in extracting the main idea of a paragraph or longer texts. This later unit used both multiple choice and open-ended questions as a basis for group work and class discussion.

b. Strategies for Reading Comprehension

The methodology of this section was developed from Candlin, Kirkwood and Moore (1971). The texts used were selected from Smithies (1972), and were adapted versions of articles from general scientific journals such as the "New Scientist" on the subjects of ecology, veterinary science, psycho-linguistics and psychology. An additional text on the politics of oil, was taken from the "Guardian", November 1979.

The basic approach to these texts was to submit them to a detailed scrutiny from different viewpoints with the aim of further building up reading comprehension strategies that would be applicable to the students' own reading, and also integrating those skills practised in the first part of the component. The methodology was as follows: initially, the students were given a set of scanning questions, dealing mainly with explicitly stated information, and designed to provide practice in reading for a specific purpose. This was followed by a timed reading of the passage, after which the scanning questions were answered and checked. After a more lengthy reading of the text, questions were answered on vocabulary and reference. The former followed both the technique of matching words with their dictionary definitions, and substitution of phrases for single items; and also the Candlin, Kirkwood and Moore approach of building lexical and phrasal sets. The reference questions were mainly multiple choice, concentrating on anaphora, cataphora, and ellipsis.

These were followed by paraphrase exercises, where complex syntax, (usually of one sentence, 4-5 lines long) was analysed in terms of its constituent structure, and finally paraphrased. The intention here was firstly to direct students away from a linear approach to comprehension towards an awareness of subordination and co-ordination, as well as to promote a fundamental awareness of NP-VP unity; secondly, to inculcate an awareness of semantic equivalences among heterogeneous syntactic structures; and finally to encourage students to use their own words, as opposed to copying from the text in their written work. The overall aim of this section, then, was to tackle the structural and semantic

problems that students have to face by presenting students with strategies for dealing with complex syntax. In this way, the approach also provided a much-needed remedial grammar component, in tackling the specific problems raised by the particular extract under study, as well as leading to considerable discussion of such matters as the precise structural and semantic function of certain indicators of subordination. Methodologically then these questions were not so much a set exercise, as a basis for class discussion.

The final sections concerned open-ended reading comprehension questions, designed to help the students' basic comprehension of the passage, in terms of both explicit and implicit information, and to focus attention on the organisation of information and the presentation of facts, arguments and so on. This was then followed by a note-taking exercise which necessitated further discussion of the main ideas of the passage and of its rhetorical organisation. This, supported by information from the reading comprehension questions, then provided the basis for a summary, which was written without reference to the text; again, this was to put students in a situation where they had to use their own words, and rely on the adequacy (or otherwise) of their memory and notes.

The reading comprehension component in fact raised many of the same questions and problems as discussed above with reference to the listening component, particularly in relation to teaching skills atomistically as opposed to an integrated approach. As the course progressed, it became clear to us that teaching atomistic skills might run into the problems that Brumfit (1978) outlines in relation to Wilkins Notional Syllabuses (1976): that moving from a grammatically based syllabus to one based on communicative principles may simply result in the substitution of one set of discrete items for another, but with a lesser capacity for generality. The students still remain in the situation of having to integrate them themselves. It was for this reason, as well as for the need to include controlled written work, that the latter part of the course followed the pattern described above.

ii. Term Paper

The second element in the reading/writing component was the production of a term paper. The development of this element was based on the advice of Bill Starkey, E.L.U., Engineering, and Diana Adams-Smith, MSSD. This was a paper of about 3000-3500 words, on a subject of the student's choice, and was intended to provide practice and guidance in the research, organisation, writing and presentation of a dissertation. For this reason,

students were required to adhere to the usual standards of format, including in this bibliography, footnotes, abstracts, indexes, etc. that we expected in a dissertation or thesis.

Most of the work was completed outside class time by means of tutorial sessions. The only class time allotted to it was, in fact, that given to a unit on library skills, in which students were given information about the resources of the library, methods of finding books and articles, and then given practical exercises on using the card catalogue index, reference works, and periodicals indexes, such as the Science Citation Index. Further class time, however, was spent when necessary in discussing problems of organisation and presentation as and when they arose in the group as a whole.

The term paper was finally evaluated for content, organisation and presentation by both ourselves, as language teachers, and by a member of the department whose subject speciality was the paper concerned. This evaluation was in two parts: the first concerning the paper itself, and the second in a viva voce examination, where students were required to present their papers for five-ten minutes, and then answer questions from the panel. The oral interview demonstrated how seriously, in fact, students had taken this work, and the generally high standards they achieved surprised both ourselves and the faculty members. The writing of the paper itself, and the viva voce examination in particular also performed a vital function of establishing contact between ourselves and members of the departments. This being based on work which all participants thought was useful, thus gave us an opportunity to explain and discuss the other things we had been trying to achieve. The relationship which results from this kind of interaction is, we feel, essential if the programme is to be successful.

Further Developments

Since the completion of the course in the first semester it has been possible for us to investigate the academic activities in which graduate students need to participate, and which should therefore shape future developments in the English programme. This investigation involved interviewing about 20 staff and students from the three departments concerned with the help of a questionnaire which was compiled for this purpose. It became clear that there are some differences in both the extent and type of linguistic demands made upon graduate students across the three departments. In general, the Physics and Chemistry departments make very heavy linguistic demands compared with the Mathematics department, in that, for example, the type of reading required, in terms of level of complex syntax, and the number and length of texts involved, is much greater than seems to be the case in most courses in Mathematics. The

same is generally true of both oral and written production, where the number of seminar papers, short expository talks, viva voce examinations and extended writing assignments is greater. It is, however, possible to attempt a composite statement regarding the events and activities of graduate students as a whole irrespective of department.

Event 1. Attending Lectures

Activities:
1. Listening to and understanding the lecture content
2. Note-taking
   a. own notes
   b. copying from blackboard
   c. writing dictated notes
3. Questioning
   a. asking for clarification
   b. answering lecturer's questions
4. Giving short expository talk on lecture-related topic

Event 2. Attending Seminars

Activities:
1. Reading required literature
2. Writing seminar paper
3. Oral presentation of paper from notes
4. Discussion of content of paper

Event 3. Writing Assignments

Activities:
1. Literature Search
2. Reading relevant literature
3. Note-taking/summarising from written sources
4. Synthesis of information
5. Organisation of subject matter/preparation of outline
6. Writing thesis in required format
7. Preparing abstract of thesis

Event 4. Reading Texts

Activities:
1. Recording references from books, journals
2. Scanning to assess desirability of information
3. Reading for specific information
4. Reading to find the main information
5. Reading for all information
6. Note-taking
7. Checking and comparing with other sources, including lecture notes
8. Preparing questions for clarification

Event 5. Laboratory Work

Activities:
1. Read background literature
2. Setting up experiment
   a. listening to technician's explanation
   b. reading relevant manuals
   c. interpreting diagrams during experiment
   d. questioning for assistance during experiment
3. Recording experimental data systematically
4. Interpreting results/drawing conclusions
5. Writing report/thesis

Event 6. Tests and Examinations

Activities:
1. Preparing from notes
2. Reading exam. instructions and questions
3. Answering questions in writing
4. Taking oral examinations

Event 7. Reference Activities

Activities:
1. Using an English dictionary
2. Using the library

This account of activities in some cases confirmed our previous intuitions and in others provided surprises. The list given here is skeletal, and of course more could be said about all of these activities on the basis of information we gathered. Among the more interesting insights were: that certain teachers ask students to write condensed accounts of text-book chapters; that teaching groups are so small, only a single student in some cases, that the mode of communication is more often one-to-one dialogue, or informal tutorial discussion, than the one-way monologue of the lecture; that students have to speak for extended periods when leading seminars using only notes as a cue - reading from a pre-prepared paper being unacceptible - with the writing-up of a seminar paper being a secondary goal; and that while there is a low level of tolerance of linguistic error on the part of professors as far as students' written work is concerned, the opposite is true with regard to students' spoken perfoqmance, where it was felt that effective communication, not grammatical perfection, was the pricrity.

These findings partly support what we included in our first attempt at constructing the English courses, but they also indicate that our concentration on receptive skills may have been excessive. Consequently, when the course is next offered, (i.e. in September 1980), we intend to include more work in speaking and writing, to reflect the productive activities which we now know occur in courses in the Science Faculty. In the Listening component of the

English programme we will try to simulate more closely the tutorial/seminar situations, by concentrating on questioning techniques, group discussion, delivering short talks from notes, and so on. For example, we are currently preparing short videotaped talks of 10-15 minutes in length given by professors from the Science and other faculties of the university. These are to be used not only for listening comprehension and note-taking activities, but also for oral reconstitution by students on the basis of (i) their notes and (ii) copies of the visual data such as, graphs, diagrams, etc. which the 'guest speakers' are deliberately asked to incorporate in their talks.

Given the expansion of the intensive programme to fifteen hours a week, we intend to split the reading/writing component into two, with five hours given to each, so allowing more time to be spent on production. Thus the reading component will not only include intensive study of short texts, focusing on specific skills, but will also require a greater amount of extensive reading, leading to oral work, presentation of reports, etc. The writing component will, we hope, handle weaknesses, as well as including note-taking, summary work, synthesis of two or more sources, and a more structured approach to writing a term paper.

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ELABORATION D'UN MATERIEL DIDACTIQUE POUR UN SECOND SEMESTRE DEBUTANTS

SUMMARY IN ENGLISH

MATERIALS PREPARATION FOR BEGINNERS, SECOND SEMESTER

V. Orssaud refers the readers to his article in AL-MANAKH Volume 3, No.2 where certain objectives were laid down on the basis of which 5 teaching units (7) hours) were prepared for beginners, first semester. These were tried out and revised by members of the French Unit. Since then, work has continued on four more teaching units for the second semester. The author's intention is to show that most of the choices leading to the preparation of the first group of teaching units (NM1) were justified, but that changes have had to be made in the light of practical experience.

Although material prepared for the first semester tended to follow the presentation/exploitation/transfer methodology, that prepared for the second semester (NM2) aimed at a freer use of language and also at the introduction of reading. Three compromises had to be made in the objectives. A purely notional-functional/communicative approach, although attractive, was found to be impracticable in view of the local status of French; the study habits of the target population tend to favour greater written re-inforcement; and the development of reading skills was deemed important given that reading would probably be the students' main contact with French after these courses.

The author then exemplifies the presentation of material. Skills are used to outline a situation where the communicative function of language is evident, without restricting one scene to one particular dialogue. Dialogues are evolved in group work, moving from known language to new language with the help of the teacher. Language is thus presented in a creative setting, while building up the students' expectations before they work on the pre-prepared dialogues. It is hoped that mechanical repetition is avoided by such activities as role play, problem solving and transcoding.

The Unit's approach to reading is then outlined, beginning with grapheme/phoneme correspondence, through the recognition of cognates (the former negatively influenced by the students' knowledge of English, the latter positively) to reading skills beyond the sentence level. Orssaud concludes by pointing out that the course aims at providing the teacher with a number of activities to enable him to be involved in creating his own course, avoiding linear sequencing.

An example of a presentation from Teaching Unit 7 is outlined by J.Brunn. A series of stills is shown, on the basis of which utterances are solicited. The teacher intervenes to provide new language input. The pre-prepared dialogue is played only after groups have built up their own dialogues.

M. Kerisit gives examples of language use from tables and charts with follow-up activities where students are encouranged to produce similar diagrams or provide similar information with relevance to themselves. The author argues that this methodology maintains the cohesion of discourse in spite of the fact that, at this early stage, the students are obviously limited grammatically.

ER

ELABORATION D'UN MATERIEL DIDACTIQUE POUR UN SECOND SEMESTRE DEBUTANTS

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I. Présentation Générale (V. Orssaud)

Mon article de Al-Manakh de mai 79 (Vol.3,No.2) présentait un matériel en cours d'élaboration en insistant sur les objectifs de la commission, et sur ses choix. Ceci était précisé en relation avec l'analyse de la méthode que nous avions décidé de remplacer (La France en Direct 1), cette analyse étant issue le plus souvent d'une pratique.

Ce nouveau matériel (NM1), c'est-à-dire 5 dossiers pour un premier semestre débutant (Volume de 70 heures effectives) a été réalisé. Il a été expérimenté par trois professeurs de la section au premier semestre 79-80, de façon concluante. Pendant l'expérimentation de NM1, l'équipe a continué son travail et a élaboré les cinq dossiers suivants, pour le deuxième semestre, moins un dossier (le dossier 10 ne sera complètement élaboré qu'à la fin de l'expérimentation en cours des dossiers 6, 7, 8, 9). Mon propos à présent est de faire apparaître d'une part que la plupart des choix qui ont conduit à l'élaboration de NM1 étaient justifiés (cf. expérimentation), mais que d'autre part, notre travail et nos conceptions ont évolué, grâce à la confrontation permanente de la pratique, de l'élaboration, de l'information. L'éclairage sera porté cette fois sur la méthodologie, avec une exemplification la plus claire possible.

1. Le Schéma Méthodologique

Dans NM1, la conception méthodologique était encore assez étroitement liée à celle des M.A.V.: avec une succession de phases à peu près respectée

Présentation/Exploitation (fixation)/Transfert

Dans NM2, on peut dire que la créativité langagière est sollicitée à toutes les phases, et on aboutit au schéma suivant:

Présentation/Production contrainte ou libérée/Apprentissage de la lecture Production (activités en contexte) (compréhension de textes)

Nous rompons ainsi avec la séquence: acquisition/expression, qui avait tendance dans les M.A.V. à bloquer les apprenants et à empêcher l'expression. Par ce schéma aussi, nous introduisons dans l'enseignement/apprentissage ce qui nous paraît être à l'analyse un objectif essentiel dans la situation Département d'anglais: la lecture.

Avant de passer à chacun des trois points du schéma méthodologique, je voudrais faire état des compromis auxquels nous sommes arrivés, à cause certainement des convictions des praticiens que sont les membres de la commission, mais aussi pour la plus étroite adaptation à notre public.

2. Trois Compromis

2.1. Une approche fonctionnelle-notionnelle nous a toujours semblé séduisante parce qu'à l'objectif globaliste auquel répondent les solutions universaliste comme FeD (apprendre la langue) elle substitue des objectifs plus délimités en termes de savoir-faire plus que de savoir.

Dans NM1 nous avons introduit en fait des micro-fonctions du type "demander un prix" ou "indiquer une addresse" etc. Dans NM2, les séquences des ensembles de présentation introduisent des macro-fonctions dans une approche moins parcellaire, du type "apprécier quelque chose", "donner son opinion sur", ou "demander une information/un service"... Ces macro-fonctions fournissent la référence fontionnelle principale et différentes situations permettent à un certain nombre d'actes de parole d'appraître en contexte. NM2 présente des dialogues beaucoup moins thématiques que NM1, mais dans les deux cas, il y a quand même compromis entre l'approche fonctionnelle et l'approche situationnelle classique de type globaliste. Ce compromis d'une part parce que nous préférons faire apparaître les actes de parole dans un dialogue nettement situé d'un point de vue communicatif, maintenant en cela l'idée M.A.V. de la présentation, mais aussi parce que dans la situation locale où des débouchés langagiers précis ne sont pas visés il est difficile (risqué) d'adopter plus vigoureusement une optique fonctionnelle-notionnelle. Une approche délibérement et exclusivement communicative est pratiquement exclue étant donné le statut local du français. La tentation de l'approche fonctionnelle est avant tout justifiée d'un point de vue méthodologique.

2.2. L'analyse du contexte d'apprentissage montre que le français est bien souvent conçu comme une matière scolaire. De plus, l'habitus scolaire est en gros défavorable à une méthodologie de l'observation et de l'échange langagier. Nous observons au contraire une habitude de la traduction, de la nécessité d'un support écrit qui conditionne la mémorisation, comme le cahier avec listes de mots, le besoin de s'assurer d'un contenu (qui sera ici grammatical et lexical, ou qui sera les dialogues) plus que des savoir-faire langagiers. Nous devons modifier le comportement d'apprentissage pour enseigner par l'échange verbal, mais nous devons aussi nous servir de la grande mémoire visuelle des étudiants et des possibilités de renforcement qu'offre l'écrit. C'est pourquoi nous avons introduit une partie "activités écrites" importante qui vise d'abord, dans NM1, la fixation du système de correspondances graphie/phonie qui conditionne tout l'apprentissage ultérieur (cf. transfert négatif de l'anglais) et en tout cas est un préalable absolu à une production écrite contrainte visant le renforcement et à la lecture.

2.3. A côté de ces activités écrites relativement traditionnelles, nous avons considéré qu'il était important de développer un enseignement - relativement autonome - de la lecture (accès à la compréhension des textes): c'est dans la lecture que la plupart des étudiants trouveront après leurs études de français à l'université la possibilité d'une pratique continuée du français (ou pourra même dans certains cas se poursuivre un apprentissage autonome).

Ces compromis (fonctionnelle/situationnel, approche communicative/matière scolaire, apprentissage d'une langue orale/écrit de renforcement/apprentissage de la lecture) répondent, comme nous l'avons vu, aux caractéristiques du plu public et de la situation.

3. Les Trois Aspects Essentiels de NM2

3.1. Méthodologie de la présentation.

La présentation se fait toujours, dans NM2, à l'aide d'un support visuel (film fixe) transcodant le dialogue. Les différences avec le matériel visuel de présentation de NM1 (cf. art. cité), qui était un matériel classique, sont nettes cependant: les images ici ne sont jamais codées (de façon à "représenter" étroitement le contenu verbal), à tel point qu'il est rare qu'on retrouve la correspondance une image par réplique de dialogue. En général, en effet, ces images se bornent le plus souvent à mettre en place visuellement les éléments du cadre situationnel de la communication, de façon à ce que soient signifiés le mieux possible les paramètres communicatifs: il est essentiel pour les activités de préparation qu'on va exposer que ces paramètres soient perçus de façon très claire par les étudiants (qui peuvent d'ailleurs définir rapidement la situation de communication, aidés par le professeur). Nos séquences sont de deux types:

1. la situation cadre est relativement contraignante:
   4 images: un client interroge une hôtesse dans ce qui est perçu comme étant une agence de tourisme/le client est assis devant le bureau d'un employé qui détient la documentation/prospectus présentant un voyage organisé en Inde/le client prend congé. Les rôles sociaux sont ici évidents, et la demande d'information est la référence fonctionnelle principale.

2. la situation-cadre est beaucoup plus ouverte, il ne s'agit pas de rôles sociaux, mais le psychologique est prépondérant: exemple:
   1 image: deux jeunes femmes (de dos) parlent en regardant la vitrine d'un magasin de vêtements à la mode.
   1 image: deux jeunes femmes et un homme parlent en regardant une R5, dans la rue.

Dans les deux cas, sur ces séquences, nous avons préparé un dialogue (ou plusieurs dans certains cas); qui présente des éléments nouveaux (éléments appartenant au fonctionnel/éléments d'une progression linguistique). La

méthodologie consiste à préparer l'appréhension par les étudiants du dialogue de présentation, non pas en demandant de "construire" le dialogue prévu à la conception, avec ses éléments nouveaux, mais en explorant la situation de communication par la production de dialogue (travail de groupes avec l'assistance du professeur) qui utiliseront des éléments connus, mais qui devront faire preuve d'une logique discursive qui ressortit à la créativité langagière. Le professeur peut guider en aidant à choisir dans les séquences du Ier et 2ème types des circonstants, des statuts psychologiques...

Le professeur devra même fournir des éléments de contenu, actes de parole ou lexique, à la demande, mais d'une façon limitée et prudente, (of exemple 1), ces éléments ne recouvrant pas ceux qu'on s'est proposé de présenter dans le dialogue prévu, donné a la fin de cette activité préparatoire.

Ce travail de préparation a pour but de mêler production, créativité et observation de la réalisation présentée. Il doit rendre optimale l'appréhension du dialogue proposé, qui comporte en contexte, et à l'intérieur d'une logique langagière, les éléments nouveaux. La situation ayant été explorée de cette façon, le dialogue proposé en fin d'activité apparaîtra comme répondant à un besoin.

A noter que pour réaliser ces activités, nous n'avons plus pu recourir (ou beaucoup moins) à des séquences empruntées à des méthodes, comme c'était le cas dans NM1: J. Brunn a dessiné un certain nombre de ces images, et quelques professeurs ont réalisé des montages photographiques.

Les images du 2ème type seront surtout utilisées en activité d'expression libre: elles sont beaucoup plus ouvertes. Les dialogues produits par les étudiants sont brefs (de quatre à huit répliques), et le dialogue proposé par le matériel a pour fonction de renforcer les éléments présentés.

3.2. Méthodologie de l'entraînement

Dans NM1, comme dans NM2, nous avons refusé (cf. art. cité) les exercices mécaniques, le montage de mécanisms... C'est surtout dans NM2 que nous avons réussi à ne proposer que des activités (pour l'exercise des formes nouvelles, de l'expression libre, ou d'une production écrite de renforcement) où le sens et la cohérence aient leur plein rôle. Pour chaque exercice (activité), une situation est posée de la façon la plus claire et la plus économique possible. De la sorte, la production de l'étudiant, même si, dans certains cas, elle est contrainte par une forme grammaticale à employer - mais ce n'est pas la grammaire qui prime: c'est l'expression - ne se fait jamais hors contexte. Il n'y a pas d'emploi de la forme grammaticale pour elle-même, mais par besoin d'expression.

On trouve les entrées suivantes à ces activités (où nous ne voulons pas séparer "entrainement grammatical" d'"expression libérée", puisque le principe est le même: le stimulus est une situation, jamais une forme):

SITUATIONS	ACTIVITES
verbalisées (explicitées verbalement)	manipulation orale
images	entraînement grammatical oral et/ ou écrit
souches (élément inférieur ou supérieur à la phrase)	
documents	expression libre

- les jeux de rôle, les simulations de toutes sortes sont abondamment utilisées (des tâches à réaliser en français), le questionnement direct également.
- le commentaire, description, dialogues
- complétion: implication logique
- documents: schémas, tableaux à deux entrées. Leur fonction est de donner une information non-verbale, mais codée (chiffres, symboles): ces documents sont choisis pour leur lisibilité (quelquefois ils font partie de l'exprérience de l'étudiant). La tâche de l'étudiant/groupe est de verbaliser l'information.

Une entrée facultative à ces activités peut être la forme linguistique à réemployer. Dans quelques cas, elles incluent l'observation: un modèle est donné. Toutes ces activités sont accomplies en termes de tâches, nous préférons ce rythme d'activité à la rapidité des exercices structuraux fermés inefficaces au niveau de la rétention, et qui ne constituent jamais une pratique langagière.

3.3. Méthodologie de l'apprentissage de la lecture.

Nous commençons à introduire une activité qui nous paraît essentielle, la lecture: accès à la compréhension de texte. Les raisons principales tiennent aux objectifs de l'enseignement/apprentissage dans la situation locale, à ce que la lecture est une activité facilitante pour un apprentissage passif, et une activité gratifiante en ce qu'elle permet d'échapper assez vite à un français marqué par la situation scolaire.

L'apprentissage du système de correspondance graphie/phonie a été favorisé dans NM1, par des exercices de lecture (appréhension-reconnaissance/ identification-répétition/écriture), dont l'expérimentation montre l'efficacité. Des activités écrites, d'autre part, visant manipulation et fixation, dans le double souci de tenir compte des habitudes scolaires de nos étudiants et de préparer à l'examen qui repose toujours en grande partie sur un contrôle de connaissances à l'écrit, ont permis la maîtrise des principaux éléments de l'aspect écrit de la langue.

Les textes que nous avons retenus sont "lavés", plus rarement fabriqués, pratiquement jamais authentiques pour l'instant. Nous considérons cependant que cet apprentissage est relativement autonome, et que, pour plusieurs rai-

sons, on peut développer assez vite une capacité d'appréhension des contenus de texte, aussi nos textes sont-ils d'un niveau nettement supérieur au "niveau" général en langue. En efft: il faut tenir compte:

- des habitudes (de la maîtrise) adulte en langue maternelle, et en langue étrangère (anglais)
- des appuis nombreux (évidents au niveau du lexique: "cognates" etc.) que l'apprenant peut trouver dans la langue intermédiare (anglais) surtout dans certains types de discours écrit,
- du fait que la capacité de lecture excède toujours la capacité de production orale (phénomène de la reconnaissance + compréhension contextuelle etc.).

On vise:

- à donner des habitudes "saines" en face d'un texte, c'est-à-dire en particulier:
- à apprendre aux lectueurs à éviter la lecture linéaire (type b-a ba)
- à développer des stratégies d'entrée dans les textes avec habitudes de repérage (des points d'ancrage par exemple)
- à favoriser la rétention des structures organisationnelles des discours écrits (les réalisations discursives spécifiques doivent guider le choix de textes), de même que d'un lexique passif.

La méthodologie de la lecture va dans ce sens: le professeur part toujours du questionnement sur les contenus, et, hiérarchiquement, sur le contenu global avant d'en venir aux unités d'information; il aide les étudiants à repérer tous les éléments qui articulent les unités du contenu (mots clés, mots-thèmes, articulateurs, diaphores, outils logicaux-synaxiques); la notion de "mot" étant ici suspecte, elle ne doit apparaître qu'en fin d'activité pour ce qui est des seules unités lexicales intéressantes: le texte n'est pas forcément à épuiser.

4. Conclusion: L'esprit de ce NM2 est toujours marqué par le pragmatisme. Nous avons noté l'approche modulaire qui vise à permettre au professeur de constituer son itinéraire, donc qui consiste au moins pour nous à proposer un choix d'activités. Ceci signifie que ce NM doit être, même après expérimentation, enrichi, modifié. Ayant défini une progression qui n'est pas plus conventionnelle (qui l'est tout autant) qu'une autre, qui cherche en tout cas à n'être pas étroitement linéaire ni programmée, ce que nous essayons de proposer (c'est pourquoi ce NM n'est jamais une "méthode"), c'est un nombre suffisant d'activités (adaptées selon nous aux objectifs de l'enseignement/apprentissage par le choix méthodologique qu'elles impliquent) pour que le professeur qui s'en sert puisse créer son cours.

I, II, III, IV et 1, 2, 3, etc., correspondant à l'ordre d'apparition de la production; à droite A, B, C, etc., signalent les interventions du professeur qui seront reprises et explicitées plus bas (cf. para.4)

I. 1. Je fais mon bagage
2. Je suis en train de finir ma valise
3. Je suis en train de faire ma valise/Je fais mes vêtements en paquet* j'emballe mes vêtements
4. Je vais finir maintenant
5. Je vais finir vite A1
6. Tu as fait ta valise?
7. Tu as fini ta valise?
8. Tu dois finir ta valise
9. Tu es en retard, tu dois finir ta valise
10. Je fais mon choix de vêtements
11. Je choisis les vêtements qu'il faut.../il faut choisir des vêtements B
12. Parce que l'Inde est chaud*
13. Parce qu'il fait chaud en Inde
14. Parce que le climate en Inde*
15. A cause du climat, de la chaleur, de la saison ...

II. 1. Pour voyager, tu ne dois pas prendre beacoup de vêtements
2. Qu'est-ce que tu prends avec toi?
3. Qu'est-ce que tu portes avec toi?*
4. Qu'est-ce que tu emmènes avec toi?*
5. Qu'est-ce que tu emportes avec toi?/"apporter" C
6. Ces vêtements n'est pas nécessaire d'emporter*
7. Ce n'est pas nécessaire pour emporter en Inde*
8. Il n'est pas nécessaire d'emporter ces vêtements en Inde D
9. Tu n'as pas besoin d'emporter ces vêtements.
10. Pourquoi est-ce que tu veux emporter ça?
11. Tu emportes beaucoup de vêtements avec toi!
12. Ça suffit comme ça...
13. Pour voyager, tu dois emporter deux pantalons, et deux ou trois chemises.
14. Tu sais, il fait très chaud là-bas, donc il faut emporter des vêtements d'été.

III. 1. Est-ce que tu veux emporter cette robe?
2. Je n'aime pas cette robe: ne l'emporte pas...
3. Et ça tu ne veux pas l'emporter?
4. Tu dois emporter des vêtements d'été...
5. Tu vas emporter cette robe longue? Moi, j'ai une autre plus jolie* ("j'en ai"...)
6. Elle est jolie cette robe...

II. Exemplification

II. 1. Exemple d'expérience en phase de présentation (J. Brunn)

1. Contexte de l'expérimentation: présentation de la 2ème séquence visuelle du Dossier 7 du NM2, en 192 - Commerce. Le public de ces cours a la particularité d'être très hétérogène: pour ce 192, la moitié des étudiants est à son niveau normal dans le cursus.

2. Matériel: le support est la deuxième séquence visuelle du D7 du NM2. Il s'agit d'un montage photographique de 4 unités, mettant en scène deux personnages féminins qui discutent en préparant une valise. La situation-cadre est relativement ouverte et sera rattachée spontanément par les étudiants à la 1ère séquence du même dossier (demande de renseignements dans une agence de voyages; le thème "préparation d'un voyage" est établi par les étudiants). A cette séquence, le dossier fait correspondre un dialogue D_o de cinq répliques, qui sera présenté aux étudiants seulement en fin d'activité. En D_o, nous avons fait figurer des éléments linguistiques nouveaux qui, à l'évidence, n'apparaîtront pas dans les productions des étudiants (au moins pour ceux qui sont à leur niveau normal dans le cursus). Ces éléments s'inscrivent dans la progression générale du NM1 à NM2. La procédure suivie ici devrait permettre une appréhension rapide et économique de ces éléments soit, pour certains, en cours d'activité (énoncés produits par les étudiants les plus avancés), soit, régulièrement, à la fin de l'exercice, par la confrontation de D_o avec D_1, D_2, D_3, etc., qui sont les dialogues que les étudiants auront organisés, en travail de groupe, à partir du corpus des productions libres sur images.

3. Procédure: a/ mise en situation: elles est très rapide; après visionnement de la séquence complète, la situation est définie, brièvement, avec l'aide du professeur: "elle prépare ses bagages, sa valise, pour partir en vacances (en voyage)".

b/ production/présentation: la séquence est reprise, image par image: le professeur sollicite les étudiants, et demande le plus grand nombre d'énoncés (répliques) possibles pour chaque image; ses interventions sont réduites au minimum: il se contente de faire répéter, reprendre, rebondir éventuellement les répliques, le dialogue (en utilisant le retour sur image ou l'anticipation sur l'image suivante pour souligner la logique du discours), au plus, il oriente la production en faisant élucider ce qui reste implicite dans l'image ou dans une production d'étudiant, en privilégiant les éléments qui seront réinvestis plus loin dans des exercices ou d'expression libre (orale/écrite). L'objectif essentiel reste la constitution de D_1, D_2, D_3, etc., et leur confrontation avec D_o, dernière étape de cette phase.

c/ corpus des productions: ont été retenues toutes les productions, dans leur ordre d'apparition. Les productions incorrectes, fondamentales dans le processus d'apprentissage sont signalées par un astérisque; à gauche figure une double numérotation correspondant à l'image;

7. Elle est sale.
8. Elle n'est pas jolie.
9. Cette robe n'est pas élégante.
10. Cette robe n'est pas à la mode. E

IV. 1. Est-ce que tu vas emporter ce pantalon?
2. Ce pantalon est joli.
3. J'ai besoin de ce jean parce qu'il y a beaucoup de voyages*
4. Pour aller à la mer ou à la montagne, tu dois emporter ce jeans.
5. A mon avis, tu dois emporter seulement un jean et trois T-shirts.

4. Interventions du professeur: A(I, 5): problème de distribution du dialogue: changement d'interlocuteur. Spontanément les étudiants font parler le personnage qui permet de réinvestir immédiatement en dialogue les éléments de la mise en situation (cf. I,1 à I,4)

la demande de changement d'interlocuteur entraîne l'apparaition: - d'énoncés I,7, I,8, I,9, qui justifient la structure ne ... pas encore / déjà de D_o (qui est donnée dans D_o)

- du thème de la discussion, le choix des vêtements à emporter.

B (I,11): l'énoncé produit amène une demande d'explicitation: "pourquoi faut-il choisir des vêtements?". Les résponses I,12, I, 13, I,14 entraînent un exercice d'expression orale (manipulations), en questionnement direct prof./étud. et étud./étud./ qui s'appuie sur le vécu des étudiants (présence de deux Africans et de trois étudiants ayant fait un voyage en Inde récent). Au-delà de l'explicitation des expressions "vêtements en coton" "robe légère" "pulls en laine" et "dans la journée" "en janvier" de D_o, cette manipulation vise à préparer un exercice de manipulation sur "le temps qu'il fait" qui figure dans le même dossier. Il s'agit là d'un des objectifs du dossier 7.

C (II,5): le professeur donne le verbe "emporter" qui est apparu comme du besoin (approximations successives: II,2, II,3, II,4). Les énoncés d'appropriation feront apparaître une confusion avec apporter qui sera facilement corrigée en s'appuyant sur le contexte.

D (II,8): correction des énoncés II,6, II,7, la formulation correcte est trop complexe pour que les étudiants la prennent en charge.

E (III,11): à la demande des étudiants l'expression "être à la mode"/"ne pas être à la mode" est donnée par le professeur.

5. Bilan: au terme de cette étape, les étudiants organisent les productions qui leur ont semblé les plus satisfaisantes en dialogues, et ceci en travail de groupe. On aboutit ainsi à la constitution de 4 or 5 dialogues, qui peuvent être comparés avec D_o, le dialogue qui figure dans le dossier. Le bilan de

cette comparaison fait apparaître que des structures et éléments lexicaux nouveau qui figurent en D. seuls les éléments "dans la journée/plutôt/ mettre" demandent éventuellement une explication; il est aisé de s'appuyer pour cela sur des productions du corpus en procédant à un retour sur image.

L'avantage de ce type de procédure est important. Deux des principaux objectifs du dossier (emploi des semi-auxiliaires, expression de l'obligation et l'expression du temps qu'il fait) auront ainsi été manipulés une première fois, en situation: cf. I,8: tu dois - II,1 tu ne dois pas...

III, 4: idem
II, 13: idem
I, 11: il faut
II, 8: il n'est pas nécessaire de
II, 9: tu n'as pas besoin de
III, 1: tu veux - III,3: tu ne veux pas...

ainsi qu'une manipulation ouverte (cf. para. 4, B): où est explorée l'aire: il fait chaud/humide/frais/bon/froid

le climat de l'Inde est plus humide que le climat de Koweit
il y a quatre saisons en Europe, l'été, l'automne, l'hiver, le printemps,
il n'y a que deux saisons en Afrique, au Sénégal.

II. 2 - Deux exemples d'activités d'entraînement. (M. Kérisit)

Dans les exercices du NM2 qui ont pour but l'entraînement à l'expression orale, nous avons refusé la mécanique formée des exercices structuraux; nous avons préféré des exercices menant à une pratique langagière et donc s'inscrivant dans une approche communicative telle qu'elle a été décrite plus haut. Ainsi la forme grammaticale n'est jamais employée pour elle-même mais chaque support d'entraînement s'efforce de créer un besoin de communication à partir d'une situation:

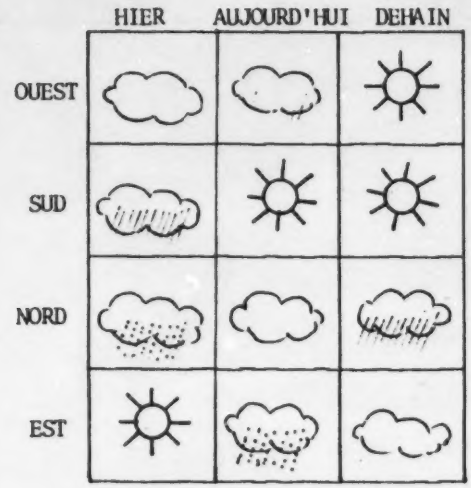
De fait les exercices s'articulent autour de deux principes que nous allons illustrer:

1. la situation doit être donnée le plus clairement possible
2. nous ne séparons pas la manipulation grammaticale de l'activité orale "libre" puisque le point de départ est le même: la situation.

1. Les supports impliquant une situation de communication:

Nous avons beaucoup utilisé, en plus des jeux de rôle et des simulations de toute sorte, des documents, des schémas dont l'observation doit entraîner une activité langagière permettant le réemploi des structures découvertes dans la présentation. Ces documents donnent une information non verbale sous forme chiffres ou de symboles ou d'éléments déjà connus de l'étudiant.

A. Le temps qu'il fait (lecture d'un tableau météorologique)



il fait mauvais, il y a des nauges

il fait mauvais, il pleut

il fait beau, il fait chaud, il y a du soleil

il neige, il fait froid

B. L'emploi de temps d'Hélène

	LUNDI	MARDI	MERCREDI	JEUDI	VENDREDI	SAMEDI	DIMANCHE
MATIN	MENAGE COURSES LECTURE	COURSES COURS DE DECORATION	MENAGE PROMENADE AVEC LES ENFANTS	MENAGE COIFFEUR	COURSES COURS DE DECORATION LECTURE	MENAGE COURSES EN VILLE AVEC SERGE SORTIE	RESTAURANT PROMENADE A LA CAMPAGNE
APRES-MIDI	CINEMA	THE CHEZ BRIGITTE	S'OCCUPER DES ENFANTS	THÉ A LA MAISON AVEC DES AMIES			

II. Les deux phases de l'exercice: manipulation ou expression libre?

A. Observation / description mettant en jeu les structures grammaticales et le vocabulaire introduit en présentation.

Support A: le temps qu'il fait

Jeu des temps	Lexique de la météorologie
Passé composé	il fait frois
Présent	il pleut, il a plu
Futur	il neige
il fait beau	
jour	
sombre...	

Support B: l'emploi du temps d'Hélène

Locutions temporelles pratiquées en situation	Lexique des activités quotidiennes
le lundi	suivre un cours
tous les lundis	s'occuper des enfants
une fois par semaine...	faire une promenade...

Cette première phase de description des supports se fait avec l'assistance du professeur et le caractère répétitif de ce type de schéma permet, sans répétition mécanique, la mémorisation des structures et du lexique.

B. Appartenant également à l'entraînement grammatical, la production libre nous semble propre à fixer les éléments linguistiques déjà utilisés dans la phase d'observation des supports.

Support A

L'observation du tableau météorologique peut mener à la description par l'étudiant, du climat de Koweit; le professeur peut alors donner pour aider l'étudiant à construire son propre tableau, des entrées lexicales qui n'ont pas été vues.

Support B

• élargissement, sous forme de conversation dirigée, de l'intérêt social et psychologique de cet emploi du temps.	• transfert de la situation au cas personnel de d'étudiant.
- Quand est-ce qu'elle s'occupe des enfants? Pourquoi le mercredi? - Fait-elle la cuisine le dimanche? Pourquoi? - Quels sont les goûts d'Hélène?	- Que faites-vous le week-end? - Quelles sont vos distractions préférées? ...

On aboutit ainsi au schéma d'entraînement suivant:

OBSERVATION ⟶ PRODUCTION DIRIGEE ⟶ TRANSFERT COMPLET

Ce type d'exercice nous semble particulièrement gratifiant pour l'étudiant dans la mesure où, bien que contraint par une forme grammaticale à employer, il vise à la maîtrise d'une langue pour exprimer ce qu'il a à dire. Un tel type d'activité ne perd ainsi jamais de vue la cohérence du discours qui nous semble essentiel pour l'apprentissage de la langue, puisque production et acquisition se font dans un même mouvement.

A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE NOUN PHRASE IN ENGLISH AND KUWAITI ARABIC

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The purpose of this paper is to apply 'contrastive analysis' (CA) as a device for the description of the 'noun phrase' (NP) in English and Kuwaiti Arabic (KA)[1] and to explain certain errors and points of difficulty in 'second language' (SL) learning[2].

Contrastive Analysis

CA is based on two assumptions: (a) that the native language (NL) interfers with the learning of a SL, and (b) that the greater the difference between a structure in NL and one in SL, the more difficult it is for the learner. Thus, Nemser (1970) claims:

> "On the basis of a comparison of the descriptions[3] of the phonologies, grammars and lexicons of the languages in question, as formulated in accordance with the contrastivist's preferred model of language structure, contrastive linguistics offers hypotheses concerning identifications a learner will make between elements of the base and target systems, thus providing predictions and explanations concerning his learning behaviour."

Although the emphasis of CA has been on the respects in which NL and SL differ from one another, it will be shown here that 'similarities' of NL and SL can be manipulated for 'positive transfer' (Nickel & Wagner, 1968; Aitken, 1976 and 1977). Despite the fact that English and KA do not share a common ancestry, two types of 'similarity' can be distinguished:

(a) features that are characteristic of natural languages in general, i.e. language 'universals', and

(b) interlanguage similarities (Greenberg, 1966; Chomsky, 1966; Fromkin & Rodman, 1977).

A CA, by specifying just what features the two languages have in common and which they do not, can thus alert the teacher to what the foreign language learner really needs to be taught.

CA of English and KA Noun Phrase

The CA of English and KA noun phrase forms part of contrastive investigations into English and KA syntax (Yassin, 1975, 1977, 1977a, 1978, 1978a, 1978b, 1978c, 1980). The particular CA of KA and English noun phrase described here does not comprise all the problems that may arise in comparing the fea-

tures, constituents and structures of the English and KA noun phrase, but presents a choice of themes that we have been working on at present.

The term 'noun phrase' (NP) is used in modern linguistics to designate clauses and single words as well as phrases. The internal composition of an NP shows considerable variety. Some NP's, such as /'ana/'I',/hu:a/'he', consist of only a pronoun. More typically, and as used in this paper, an NP consists of a head noun flanked by modifiers of various sorts; examples are:

KA	English
/da:r xa:lid fi-ddi:ra/[4]	'Khalid's house in town'
/θla:θ siyya:ra:t mad9u:ma w-sa:Hibha winš/	'three damaged cars that are being towed by a winch'

The NP in English and KA reveals a clear need for syntagmatic systematization in preference to a narrow starting point of words and word-classes conceivably stemming from classical traditions of language learning (Mitchell, 1973). Considerable differences as well as similarities will be found between NP's in the two languages with respect to their features as well as in the distribution of the morphemes denoting syntactic connections and in the distribution of the constituents themselves. We may distinguish several 'universal' facts of the internal composition of the NP:

1) Linear ordering,
2) Lexico-grammatical restrictions on the associability of component items, and
3) Analyticity into component morphemes.

1) Linear Ordering

The relative order of immediate constituents is always significant. Such significance may be on a connotative or stylistic level, or it may signal important structural relationships (Nida, 1948). Both English and KA have certain "preferred" and certain fixed orders.

i) Modification

In KA a modifier follows the noun modified, e.g.,

/lahgat li-kwe:t/ 'the Kuwaiti dialect',
/al-luGa l-9arabiyya/ 'the Arabic language'.

Only the article and demonstrative pronouns precede the modified noun, as in:

/ha-rrayya:l/ 'this man'.

The connection between the modifier and the modified noun is so firm that an inserted word cannot intervene, e.g., 'the dialect and poetry of Kuwait' is translatable into:

/Hači li-kwe:tiyyi:n wa-š9a:rhum/, that is, 'the dialect of Kuwaitis and their poetry'.

Modifiers can be multiplied, e.g.,

/Hači li-kwe:t wi-zzube:r wi gaTar wi l-baHre:n/ 'the dialects of Kuwait, Al-Zubair (Southern Iraq), Qatar and Bahrain'.

An adjective will, in any case, follow a noun, e.g.,

/lahgat li-kwe:t idda:riy/ 'the colloquial dialect of Kuwait' (Lit. 'the dialect of Kuwait, colloquial')

In English, modifiers of the noun headword are normally placed before the headword, e.g.,

An old girl's bicycle.
A nice woman's fur coat.
An advanced learner's dictionary.
Some other bad newspaper reports.

Arabic-speaking students find such contrasts as

house boat	vs	boat house
dog house	vs	house dog
eye glasses	vs	glass eye
ice cold	vs	cold ice

particularly troublesome. This results probably from KA, in which the adjectives always follow the noun head, whereas in English they generally precede it. But modifiers in English may be placed after the headword as well as before it, e.g.,

The apartment, large and empty.
The mailman, weary and wet, trudged along in the rain.
A woman old and gaunt stood at the door.
He tossed the bag, new and glossy, into the luggage compartment. (Stageberg, 1977)

ii) Agreement (Concord)

Concord operates between noun and adjective in Arabic in respect not only of gender and number but also of what may be called "definition" or "definiteness", e.g.,

/li-bnayya-zze:na/ 'the nice girl'; here both words are feminine, singular, definite. For this last point, it must be noted that, instead of the customary single mention of the article in Western languages (the Arabic language, la langue arabe, die arabische Sprache), Arabic shows its multiple mention:

/al-luGa l-9arabiyya/ lit. 'the language the Arabic'.

The adjective receives an article even if the noun is defined by some other means, e.g.,

/xa:lid l-9a:gil/ 'Khalif the wise' (the proper name/xa:lid/ is definite by content),

/raylič il-baxi:l/ 'your (fem. sing.) miserly husband' (the possessive pronouns /-ič/ is a mode of definition in Arabic).

Inflecting adjectives for gender and number is functional in the KA NP because it associates an adjective and the noun it modifies, an association not evident in the unpredictable word-order: it serves no function in English because which adjectives go with the nouns can be inferred from word-order (Fowler, 1971).

A typical KA NP consists of a sequence of two nouns (N_1-N_2) traditionally referred to as the 'construct'. The construct in KA expresses 'possession'. The two nouns, the construct (= the thing or person possessed) and the genitive (= the possessor) are bound together in close connection which grammarians term /'iBa:fa/ 'annexion', and the noun thus amplified (i.e. 'modified') is said to be /muBa:f/ 'annexed'. The amplifying (i.e. 'modifying') noun corresponds to the English forms with apostrophe 's or with prefixed 'of'. The construct structure in Arabic shows, among other values, that a relationship of identity exists between terms that are in closest juncture. But in default of any common European technical term connoting 'a noun amplified by an identity term', the 'head' term in Arabic is the amplified one, and not as European linguists might 'prima facie' suppose, the amplifying one (Beeston, 1970; Yassin, 1978). Thus, in

/Sirwa:l ya:hil/ 'a child's shorts' the head is /Sirwa:l/ and modified by /ya:hil/.

It is possible in KA to have a whole string of nouns constituting a single structural unit, in which each successive noun is annexed to the following qualifying phrase, itself consisting of annexed noun plus qualifier, e.g.,

/ma9na xiTa:b ma9a:li wazi:r il-'i9la:m/ 'the meaning of His Excellency the Minister of Information's speech'.

/gidda:m šiba:č taĉa:kir maT9am ittiHa:d Tulla:b ja:mθit li-kwe:t/ 'in front of the box office of the restaurant of the Students' Union of Kuwait University'.

English still retains the genitive case, calling it possessive, e.g., in 'a sheep in wolf's clothing', the noun 'wolf' is in the genitive case.

2) Lexico-grammatical restrictions on the associability of lexical items within the NP

KA (N_1-N_2) structures have their status as defined or undefined marked only by the qualifying term, and the annexed (= head) noun itself never has the article. If the qualifying term is undefined, then the structure as a whole and the annexed noun is grammatically undefined, e.g.,

/ba:b da:r/ 'a house door'.
/ja:m siyya:ra/ 'a car glass'.

On the other hand, the noun with a following definite genitive is ipso facto definite. Hence,

/ba:b idda:r/ 'the house door',
/ja:m issiyya:ra/ 'the car glass'.

No word can be inserted between the noun in the construct state and the genitive in KA[5], and consequently an adjective which qualifies the former must be placed after the latter, as in

/siyya:rit xa:lid il-yidi:da/ 'Khalif's new car',
/da:r xa:lid il-9ati:g/ 'Khalid's old house',
/taGaddum li-kwe:t il-yidi:d/ 'Kuwait's new progress',
/kita:b illa:h il-9azi:z/ 'the glorious book of God'.

In a sentence like

/siyya:rit il-bint izzeina/

the meaning may be

'the car of the nice girl', or
'the nice car of the girl',

and the meaning is known from the context, linguistic or situational or both.

In English the genitive structure can be separated as

'the village's new doctor'.
'Rome's ancient glory'.

The principle that in KA an annexed noun in the construct cannot bear the article is important in distinguishing the annexion structure from a structure of N + Adjective. In contrast with the construct, both components of the N-Adjective phrase are prefixed with the article when the context is defined, e.g.,

CONSTRUCT	N + ADJECTIVE
/mu9allim iBBari:r/	/ilmu9allim iBBari:r/
'the blind man's teacher'	'the blind teacher'
/mudarrib il-kasi:H/	/ilmudarrib il-kasi:H/
'the crippled man's trainer'	'the crippled trainer'

English genitival structures, on the other hand, permit the use of two possessive markers in the same context, e.g.,

— a book of John's.
— that book of John's.
— some book of John's.

In order to render the phrase 'a book of the teacher's' in KA, it is necessary to use the construction

/kita:b min kutub il-mu9allim/ lit. 'a book of the books of the teacher',

or more simply,

/kita:b Hagg il-mu9allim/ 'a book belonging to the teacher'.

(KA /Hagg/ 'belonging to (animate)' and /ma:l/ 'belonging to (inanimate objects)') correspond to Standard Arabic /li/ 'to; for')

A universal syntactic rule inserts English 'of' and KA /Hagg/ or /ma:l/ between the head of a nominal and a modifying noun phrase that immediately follows it, as in Figure 1. This rule accounts for the of that appears in nominalizations such as (1) and (2) (Langacker, 1972):

(1) the construction of a new office building
(2) his refusal of the offer

translatable into KA as:

(1) /'nśa:' biba:ya yidi:da ma:l il-muka:tib/
(2) /rafBa ma:l il-9arθ/

(Figure 1)

3) Analyticity into Component Morphemes

Languages seem to have built-in mechanisms for expansion. We can string together "free" morphemes, or "simple" words in a language, and create compound words. There is almost no limit on the kinds of combinations which occur in English, as can be seen by the following examples:

payday, playboy, sweetshop, pickpocket, rainbow, housekeeper, breastbone, deathbed, bedside, apronstring, postman, lighthouse, greenhouse, poorhouse, madhouse, (Fromkin & Rodman, 1977).

All the above examples are compounds which at least include some of the meanings of the individual words. KA abounds in such compounds, as in

/ka-tib il-kita:b/ 'the book-writer',
/laHm Ganam/ 'mutton (i.e. meat of sheep)',
/finya:l ghawa/ 'a cup of coffee'.

But there are other compounds which don't seem to relate to the meanings of individual morphemes at all. Everyone who wears a red coat is not a Redcoat (an old name for 'British soldier'). There is quite a difference in meaning between the sentences:

'She found a red coat in her closet', and
'She found a Redcoat in her closest'.

It is true that the two sentences sound different. The words red coat are stressed on coat, whereas Redcoat is stressed on Red. The English compound egghead means, 'intellectual', not 'someone with an egg-shaped head'.

In KA, also, some NP's seem to be unitary lexical items which are susceptible to idiomaticity, e.g.,

/wild Hala:l/ 'good natured' (lit. 'son of a legitimate marriage').
/wild Hara:m/ 'ill-mannered' (lit. 'son of an illegitimate affair; a foundling'),
/galb smiča/ 'dull person' (lit. 'the heart of a fish'),
/be:Bit Sa9w/ 'something/someone spoken of but never seen' (lit. 'the egg of /S9awa/ pl. /Sa9w/ 'A kind of migrating bird that remains in Kuwait for only a short period during which it does not lay any eggs'),
/beeBit di:č/ 'Something done only once' (lit. 'a rooster's egg'). (The folktale says that a rooster lays only one egg in its lifetime.)

KA abounds in (N_1-N_2) structures comparable to a genitival phrase and consist of a noun head. Many KA proverbs and idioms are expressed in the N-N structure, e.g.,

/Hama:mit mekka/ 'a peaceful person' (lit. 'the pigeon of Mecca'),
/mo:tit il-yim9a/ 'a death on Friday (supposed to be blessed)',
/wrigat miSHaf/ 'venerable' (lit. 'a paper from the Kuran'),
/HaDfit 9aSa:t/ 'near' (lit. 'the throw of a stick'),
/grayyib badu/ '(a distant place referred to as) near as Bedouins (don't care about distances or time)',
/Hma:rit il-ga:yla/ 'midday (heat) donkey = fierce heat'[6].

Many KA proverbs consist of strings of successive noun phrases of the structure (N_1-N_2) in the construct state, e.g.,

/Hilw illisa:n b9i:d il-'iHsa:n/ 'sweet of tongue (but) of far distant beneficence' (= a hypocrite),
/širyat il-xisra:n yo:m irruba:yiH/ 'the purchase of losers on a day when everyone else is gaining' (= ill-omened people),

/9ati:g iSSu:f wa la yidi:d li-bre:sim/ '(our own) old woollens are better than (borrowed) new silk fabrics' (= old, tried methods are better than new, untried ones),

/Sxalat il-firiij ma: tiHib 'illa-tte:s il-qari:b/ 'the goat of the district takes only to a stranger he-goat' (= of the riches of Kuwait being squandered on strangers).

KA, like Semitic languages in general, uses periphrasis extensively. Of special interest are the structures which consist of kinship terms + N which have the general meaning: 'the one with (a certain attribute or characteristic), e.g.,

/bu: nno:m/ 'father of sleep = poopy',

/bu: liHya/ 'father of a beard = the one with a beard',

/bu: tamba/ 'the fat one',

/'umm 9aba:t/ 'the one with the cloak (lit. 'the mother of the cloak'),

A /bu:/ or /'umm/ construct may be used to refer to a person who sells a certain product, or is engaged in a certain activity, or owns a certain kind of property, e.g.,

/bu: jara:yid/ 'father of newspapers = a newspaper vendor',

/bu: siyya:ra/ 'father of the car = car owner',

/'umm il-9aĉĉa:fa/ 'mother of /9aĉĉa:fa/ 'a woman whose profession was to comb brides' hair before weddings' = a hypocrite'. (The hairdresser used to flatter the hair of her customers regardless of whether it was beautiful or not),

/'umm Hma:r/ 'mother of donkey = a bungled job',

/'umm bzi:9/ 'mother of /bzi:9/ = a gossip.

In periphrastic formations used to designate one idea, the words frequently became so closely connected as to be treated as one word, e.g.,

/bin 'a:dam/ 'son of Adam = man'[7].

/Sa:Hib iddikka:n/ 'master of the shop = shopowner',

/ra:9i il-Hala:l/ 'shepherd of the flock (of sheep) = landlord',

/ra:9i il-be:t/ 'shepherd of the house = landlord'.

There is no clear dividing line between English (N_1-N_2) compounds and idioms, but there are two main criteria:

(a) the productivity of the processes through which the expressions are found, and

(b) the "one-wordness" of the result.

The NP 'brain-wave' meaning 'a sudden inspiration' could qualify as an idiom semantically; its meaning is not predictable from the combined meanings of brain and wave. It is constructed the same as 'cabbage-head' = 'a fool; simpleton', 'curtain lecture' = 'a long, grumbling monologue from a wife to a

sleepy husband', 'high tea' = 'one including a cooked dish', 'dog fight' = 'a violent, indiscriminate and unorganised fight', 'hair raiser' = 'an extremely exciting story'. But in addition it is constructed the same as expressions with backshifted stress, e.g.,

hót séat, fát lády, whíte físh, shárp shóoter, pále fáce, mádmán,

that is, with adjective + noun. The process is repeated in the creation of expressions whose parts are themselves words but which have been given an unpredictable meaning. A feature that is often used in English to define compounds is shift of stress. Instead of saying

rêd cáp (Adj + N),

we say,

réd cáp 'a porter' (Compound),

'a gréenhóuse' is not a green house but a glass house for plants, 'Whíte Hóuse' is not a house painted white, but 'the presidential mansion in Washington'.

There is no pattern in Arabic as productive as the English contrastive stress, referred to above, a fact which leads to considerable failure on the part of KA-speaking students to sense the distinction between

´ and ^ pairs,

confusing both groups into one group understood as

´ ´ 8.

Conclusion

From the structural as well as the semantic points of view, there is at least a striking similarity between English and KA in that they both share the 'universal' tendencies of certain NP's

1. to occur in certain preferred or certain fixed linear order,
2. to be subject to certain lexico-grammatical restrictions, and
3. to resist analyticity into component 'meaningful' morphemes and to be susceptible to idiomaticity.

We can see, then, that the NP's in English and KA are not as variable as traditional grammarians seemed to think. There are 'universal' as well as 'specific' constraints on both grammatical systems. KA, for instance, inflects adjectives, but a KA-speaking student should not necessarily start inflecting English adjectives. KA normally postmodifies nouns, e.g.

/rayya'l čibi'r/ 'an old man',
/marah čibi'rah/ 'an old woman',

but this does not mean that KA speakers automatically transfer this linguistic feature when learning English and produce such inadmissible patterns as

*'man old' or *'woman old'.

Contrastive analysis has proved the falsity of the assumption that the greater the differences between languages the greater the difficulties will be. In many cases it is the similarity that may cause error (Wilkins, 1972). Wilkins says (p. 202):

> ".... it is not always true that differences between native and target language lead to error --- through transfer. Nor is it true that the native language is the sole source of error. It is therefore an oversimplification to say that differences cause error, while similarities do not. ...Contrastive analysis should provide a linguistic explanation for known errors, rather than serve as a predictive procedure."

Contrastive analysis of English and KA in this sense is not in itself a teaching aid (Wilga Rivers, 1975). It makes available to the language teacher new insights into the structural differences and similarities of the two languages; insights, however, that are at the same time theoretical artifacts. Nevertheless, these insights cannot be ignored; they must somehow be incorporated into teaching.

The practical problem which this and similar studies seek to involve is essentially:

"What is it we have to teach the speaker of KA who is learning English?"

Such interlinguistic studies may be of use in determining where the main emphases in teaching should fall, in explaining difficulties when they arise and suggesting ways in which some of the material may be presented, described and practised in the classroom.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

NOTES

1. Kuwaiti Arabic, the non-standard, living language of Kuwaitis, has been chosen for our contrastive purposes, since it is the form of speech employed by all Kuwaitis, educated and uneducated alike, in the real world outside classroom pseudocommunication. It is worth noting that Kuwaitis who know the 'rules' of Standard Arabic are not consistent in applying these rules in their speech. KA is the form of Arabic that all Kuwaitis have 'internalized' and has become the solid furniture of their linguistic competence. It is, therefore, assumed, theoretically at least, to be the form of language that might interfere both negatively and positively in acquiring a SL.

2. The language teacher who looks to linguistics for enlightenment as to the nature of language is frequently confused by the different approaches which are adopted, and the conflicting claims that are made about their 'correctness'.

3. Describing languages is part of the methodology of acquiring theories about language. But to test his theories it is not necessary for the linguist to produce descriptions which aim at comprehensiveness. It is usually sufficient to make an intensive and detailed description of some restricted aspect of language, such as negation, adverbs, pro-nominalization, the passive, the nominal phrase, the verbal phrase and so on.

4. Brief conventions for reading transcribed KA forms in this paper are as follows:

/'/	:	glottal stop
/ħ/ , /9/	:	voiceless and voiced pharyngal fricatives
/ϴ/ , /ð/	:	voiceless and voiced dental fricatives
/x/ , /ɣ/	:	voiceless and voiced uvular fricatives
/q/	:	voiceless uvular plosive
/š/	:	voiceless palato-alveolar fricatives
/č/ , /j/	:	voiceless and voiced palato-alveolar affricates
/S/ , /T/, /Đ/	:	'emphatic' (i.e. 'velarized' or 'pharyngalized') consonants, corresponding to non-emphatic /s/, /t/, /ð/ respectively.
/:/	:	a sign of long vowels.

5. The only words that may be placed between a noun and the following genetive in the construct state in KA are the demonstratives /ha/ 'this (m.s.)' and /ha:ði/ 'this (f.s.)', as in

   /dišda:šit ha-rrayya:l/ 'the long-shirt of this man',
   /ba:b ha:ði il-mazra9a/ 'the door of this ('pleasure') farmhouse'.

6. Before the period of oil prosperity, Kuwaitis used to dissuade their children from playing in the streets during midday heat by telling them stories about a fictitious donkey said to be on the loose looking for children to eat up.

7. Cf., for instance, Standard Arabic, /'ibnu 'a:dama/plural/banu: 'a:dama/ which are fused in Sudanese Colloquial into

   */bna:dem/ /na:dem/'man',
   pl. /nawa:dem/'men'.

8. Cf., for instance, (Crystal, 1969). Crystal, reviewing Halliday, concludes: "Intonation patterns are on the whole far less discrete formally and sematically, are far less finite, are more difficult to identify, and so on, than grammatical pattern" (p. 390).

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"... in languages where there is fairly fixed order of words, and where that order indicated the grammatical relations between words, concord and government would appear to be unnecessary luxuries (or difficulties)". Cf., also (p. 106): "... these categories become redundant and are often lost, as gender has been lost in English."

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ANNOUNCEMENTS

1. ENGLISH LANGUAGE RESEARCH JOURNAL

A new journal is being planned which is to be particularly concerned with teaching, learning and research in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The term ESP will be interpreted broadly so that a large number of practical and theoretical areas can be covered, which will be of interest to those involved in ESP.

Topics will include analysis of spoken and written discourse, computer text analysis, stylistics, study skills, and syllabus/materials design.

The first issue will be published in Autumn 1980 and the Journal will appear annually thereafter. Articles accepted for the first issue cover topics on programme design, specification of needs, analysis of written discourse, self-directed learning and integrative testing.

Contributions in the form of articles, reviews, research reports, and news items are invited. Further details may be obtained from:

Chris Kennedy,
English Language Research,
University of Birmingham,
B15 2TT
ENGLAND.

Tel.: 021-472-1301 Ext. 2033 (Personal)
Ext. 3646 (Messages)

2. THE ASTON SPECIALISED EFL MATERIALS SERIES

It is now becoming clear that there exist in various parts of the world specialised EFL materials of imagination and good craftsmanship which also reflect appropriate initial research and revision in the light of experience. If such materials were more widely available some of the current massive duplication in materials production might be avoided. It is partly in response to this situation that the ASTON SPECIALISED EFL MATERIALS SERIES has been created. Although the emergence in the seventies of such bulletins as ESPMENA, EST Newsletter, ESP/EST Chile and AL-MANAKH has done much to disseminate ideas and general information on courses and current interests, this has not been matched by a parallel development in the dissemination of the materials themselves. It has, of course, been argued in the last few years that comprehensive needs

analysis will lead to such highly- specific course requirements that the import of outside materials into an institution will be precluded; however, recent developments now emphasize that identification of needs alone is not necessarily a sufficient condition for successful courses.

The inauguration of the series is also partly a response to a realization that the major ELT publishers are now unlikely to have a serious interest in publishing new materials with relatively limited potential markets. Thus, the opportunities for publishing good quality materials aimed at smaller audiences is decreasing. We envisage that the materials published could be specialized in a number of different ways; for instance, they may be designed for relatively small numbers of advanced students, or they may deal with a minor ESP area such as English for Academic Legal Purposes, or they may treat in depth some particular communicative task such as A Business Presentation, or they may otherwise be 'awkward' in length, organisation or methodology.

Enquiries about the series, including offers of manuscripts, should be addressed to:-

The Series Editors,
Language Studies Unit,
The University of Aston
in Birmingham,
Gosta Green,
Birmingham, B4 7ET
E N G L A N D.

3. UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM - M.A. in Applied English Linguistics

(with particular reference to English for Specific Purposes)

Applications are invited for entry to a two-year sandwich course for experienced teachers of EFL (and in particular ESP), combining work in-post with ten weeks intensive study at Birmingham each year. Ideal for those able to obtain short-term release from EFL institutions at home and abroad.

Application forms and details from the Registry, Faculty of Arts, University of Birmingham, PO Box 363, Edgbaston, Birmingham, B15 2TT, England. Further details from Chris Kennedy, (021-472-1301 Ext. 2033 or Ext. 3646), English Language Research, University of Birmingham.

4. UNIVERSITY OF BATH - SCHOOL OF MODERN LANGUAGES

M.A. in Translation and Linguistics (for Arabic-Speaking Students)
A one-year full time course open to native Arabic-speaking students holding a degree in English or Translation.

SYLLABUS

1. Translation from Arabic into English and English into Arabic of economic, political, social and technical material.
2. Theory of translation; terminological studies.
3. Phonetics, phonology, orthography, morphology, syntax, and lexicon of contemporary English.
4. Recent developments in linguistics.
5. Applications of the computer; information retrieval.
6. A research project

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£3,000

Enquiries to: Prof. J. Coveney,
School of Modern Languages,
University of Bath,
Claverton Down,
Bath BA2 7AY
ENGLAND.

5. THE JAPAN ASSOCIATION OF LANGUAGE TEACHERS (JALT)

CALL FOR PAPERS

The Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT), an affiliate of TESOL, will sponsor the JALT INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE/TEACHING 1980, from November 22 to 24. The conference will be held at Nanzan Junior College, Nagoya. Over 600 participants from near and abroad are expected to be in attendance.

Papers, demonstrations, and workshops are encouraged in areas relevant to second language teaching and learning. The topics with particular interest would be concerned with the "newer methodologies", and practical instructional techniques.

When submitting a conference proposal, please observe the following procedures:

a. Prepare two copies of a 200-word typewritten abstract, one with your name ON, and one with your name OFF.

b. Immediately below the abstract, and on the same page, indicate the primary audience(s) for whom your presentation is intended. Also, list all the equipment that may be necessary (from blackboards to complex equipment).

c. On a separate sheet of paper include a 50-75 word bio-data statement.

d. The abstract and bio-data statement should be prepared as you wish it to appear in the programme.

After the above procedures have been observed, send your proposal to one of the following addresses, no later than August 1:

Paul G. La Forge,
English Department,
Nanzan Junior College,
Showa-Ku,
19 Hayato-Cho,
Nagoya,
JAPAN 466

Raymond Donahue,
Modern Language Centre,
Nagoya Gakuin University,
Seto,
JAPAN 480-12

6. ASSOCIATION INTERNATIONALE DE LINGUISTIQUE APPLIQUEE COMMISSION ON LSP

The Commission on LSP is organising the 3rd European Symposium on LSP which will take place at the end of the week immediately following the AILA Congress in August 1981. The Congress will be held in Lund, Southern Sweden, and the Symposium at the Copenhagen School of Economic and Business Administration, Copenhagen, Denmark.

The two programmes will be set up so as to complement each other. Further information is available from the co-conveners:

Prof. Max Gorosch,
Skiljevägen 32,
S-182 36 Stockholm-Danderyd,
SWEDEN.

Prof. Jacques Qvistgaard,
Kochsvej 18,
DK-1812 Copenhagen F
DENMARK.

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